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MEXICAN LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES.

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INTRODUCTION.

Within less than a decade there has been a large increase in the amount of Mexican labor employed in the United States; but more marked than the growth of numbers has been the increasing range of its distribution. As recently as 1900 immigrant Mexicans were seldom found more than a hundred miles from the border. Now they are working as unskilled laborers and as section hands as far east as Chicago and as far north as Iowa, Wyoming, and San Francisco. The number of different industries dependent upon Mexican labor is increasing. In some occupations Mexicans are rapidly displacing Japanese, Greeks, and even Italians. Lack of education and initiative confines most of these immigrants to the simpler forms of unskilled labor. They compete little, if at all, with what is called "white labor" in the Southwest. They work well and are contented in the desert, where Europeans and Orientals either become dissatisfied or prove unable to withstand the climate. Except in Texas and in California, few Mexicans become permanent residents, and even in those two States a majority are transient laborers who seldom remain more than six months at a time in this country. The volume of Mexican immigration, compared with that of Italians or Slavs upon the Atlantic coast, is still small, in spite of a recent increase. Complete statistics of those who cross the frontier are not kept, but the number does not exceed 100,000 per annum, and probably is not over 60,000. These people, however, are entering a sparsely settled territory with a great demand for labor. Their migration is having important economic effects in Mexico as well as in the United States. And it is becoming an agency of something approaching a social revolution among the Mexican laboring classes.

THE IMMIGRANT.

The Mexican who comes to the United States as a laborer is from the peon or from the tramp labor class of Mexico. The term "pelado," by which those migrating into Texas are known, signifies literally the man who has been stripped, a sort of intensified

"sans culottes," and indicates that the Mexicans crossing the lower Rio Grande come largely from the migratory laboring class of their own country. In California the Mexican laborers are known as "cholos," a word borrowed from Peru, where it applies to a certain type of Indian. It indicates nothing as to the original status of the immigrant. Probably most of the laborers entering the United States from El Paso or westward, with the exception of a few miners from Sonora and from Chihuahua, were originally in peonage, though they may have escaped from this relation some time before migrating to the north.

Mexicans of either of these classes are Indians, with a slight infusion of white blood. They are Indians in physique, temperament, character, and mentality. A person familiar with Mexico can tell the State or district a laborer hails from by the old tribal peculiarities of his underlying Indian stock. It is said that Mexicans have been unwittingly admitted to Indian schools in the United States without their nationality being known. And yet in almost any large group of Mexican laborers individuals are encountered who, in different surroundings, would easily pass for Europeans. By contact here and there with the upper classes of Mexico and with the older European culture that has given them their language and religion, these laborers have acquired a certain vivacity of expression and demeanor, and probably at least superficial habits of thought, that are largely foreign to the American Indian. Still, this Spanish manner varies in degree with different individuals, and with the immigrants as a body is less in evidence than the dull, docile patience of the Mexican Indian race.

The Mexicans who cross the border to work are either making their first trip to the United States or are making a second or third seasonal visit from the interior of Mexico or are of that big class of American-Mexican frontier residents who reside intermittently in either country. These last are less apt to travel widely or to work regularly, except during cotton-picking time in Texas and in Oklahoma; their migratory habits are not of recent origin, and they are not vacating old industries in Mexico to enter new occupations in the United States. The immigrant of interest is the one who has recently appeared in the field, coming from the central part of the Republic, leaving his ancestral home and callings, and ready to venture almost anywhere in search of work.

These immigrants appear at the border in sombrero, serape, and sandals, which, before crossing the river, they usually exchange for a suit of "American" clothing, shoes, and a less conspicuous hat. In fact, at Juarez and at El Paso a thriving trade of old clothes has sprung up to meet this demand.

SOURCE OF IMMIGRATION.

The source of most of this immigration is the group of States lying just north of the Valley of Mexico, and chiefly on the western and better-watered slope of the central plateau. This is the most fertile and densely populated portion of the Republic. These States are Jalisco (which is reputed to have the best laborers), Michoacan, Guanajuato, Aguas Calientes, and Zacatecas. Some labor moves northward along the National Railroad of Mexico to Laredo and to Eagle Pass from Queretaro and San Luis Potosi, which are adjoining States; but the chief migration at present is along the Mexican Central Railway, from the district mentioned to El Paso. South of this region the relatively high wages paid tropical plantation labor in Mexico, the greater distance and less direct communication to the north, and the attractions of the capital combine, with other inducements, to keep the laborers from emigrating in any considerable numbers to the United States.

Agriculture and mining are the main industries of this central district. Land is held mostly, though not exclusively, in large estates, and its chief value depends upon resident labor. Subordinate to the rights of the great proprietor are secondary forms of tenure, so well established by custom that the cultivator seems about as well protected by them as a holder in fee simple. When the railroads buy rights of way in Mexico, in many instances they have to acquire two practically independent titles to the same land, one from the "hacendado," the other from the Indian cultivator. The latter, in connection with his right to a specific tract of irrigated land, owns common rights—such as the privilege of pasturing a certain number of head of stock in the open fields. These cultivators are usually settled in villages along water courses. Whether these tenure customs are aboriginal or European in origin, they are now part of the life of the people, and ordinarily give permanence to the agricultural population in the parts of the Republic where they prevail. They explain such contradictory statements of the immigrant as that he belongs on such and such an "hacienda," and Señor So-and-so is his "patron;" and at the same time that he owns a piece of land and expects to return home in time to plant or harvest his crop.

These customary tenant rights probably modify and mitigate the institution of peonage in many parts of Mexico. What is sometimes called the "peon country" (the group of States just mentioned) appears to be precisely where these little villages of feudal tenants are most common, and one of the most interesting secondary effects of the tide of emigration starting northward from this section to the United States is its probable influence in breaking up the patriarchal organization of agriculture and landholding in Mexico.

Peonage is a debt relation between the employee or tenant and his employer, in which the former is to serve the latter until the debt is extinguished, receiving in the meantime subsistence and certain customary perquisites. The debt is seldom paid in full, because, as a rule, neither party seriously desires it to be paid. If the employee discovered that his account with his employer was about even, he would, in many instances, make this an excuse for obtaining a liberal cash loan from his "patron" to celebrate the next "fiesta," and the "patron" would probably encourage this extravagance on the part of the employee. In Mexico peonage rests solely upon custom and has no specific legal sanction.

The mines of central Mexico were originally worked by slaves or by peons, but for a long time free Mexican labor has been used. Until recently this labor has received a very low wage, rendered still lower in many cases by dependence upon a company store for supplies. It may be doubted whether the wage-earning mine workers of some interior camps have been really more independent, until recently, than the professed peons on the large estates. Like the estates, the central Mexico mining camps have contributed a considerable quota to the emigration northward.

METHOD OF MIGRATION.

In Mexico railways have given the opportunity and the inducement to emigration. Needing unskilled labor for their construction and maintenance, they drew upon the agricultural population along their lines, at first for a few days or weeks of temporary service between crops and later for more extended periods. At first the true peon was extremely averse to leaving his home, and would not work where he could not sleep under his own roof, but gradually he became bolder and more worldly-wise and could be prevailed upon to work for a month or so a hundred miles or more up and down the line. He became accustomed to having silver in his pocket occasionally and found it would exchange for things he had not heretofore thought of having for his personal use. He became attached to cash wages in about the same degree that he became detached from his home surroundings. Employers in the more primitive parts of Mexico say that at present the people will not work for money so long as they have food in their cabins. When they first leave home they will work only long enough to provide themselves with food and shelter for a few days in advance. But the railways, bringing a greater variety of wares at lower prices, have made possible the attractive shop of the railway town, and this market for money has made the latter a more desirable commodity in the eyes of the peon. He has become more of a spender and so a more persistent earner. Even at desert sidings, with

nothing but an adobe hut in sight, laborers come aboard the train in numbers to buy candy and other trifles from the train peddler. The railways thus have attracted labor and have held it more and more permanently from a constantly widening area along their lines.

The railroads that enter Mexico from the United States run for several hundred miles from the border through a desert and very sparsely settled country, but all of them ultimately tap more populous and fertile regions. Along the northern portion of their routes resident labor is so scarce that workers are brought from the south as section hands and for new construction. This has carried the central Mexican villager a thousand miles from his home and to within a few miles of the border, and American employers, with a gold wage, have had little difficulty in attracting him across that not very formidable dividing line. A general officer of the National Railroad of Mexico stated that his company had brought north about 1,500 laborers to work on the upper section of the road within a year, and that practically all of them had ultimately crossed over into Texas. In September, 1907, 400 were employed in a single gang, principally at ballasting. In October 290 of these were dismissed and, because only 30 applied for their (free) return transportation south, their foreman assumed the others had crossed the border. Wages north of the Rio Grande, in Texas, are $1 to $1.25 gold, as compared with the same rate in silver south of the river. And it must be borne in mind that prices, except for labor, are no lower in this part of Mexico than in the United States.

Officials of the Mexican Central Railway stated that their laborers in the vicinity of the city of Chihuahua, brought from Aguas Calientes and farther south, were constantly leaving them for the United States, so that a considerable part of their force was really labor in transit. Wages here were as high as $1.50 and $1.75 (for extra gangs) in silver; but north of this section of the border the gold wages are higher than in southeastern Texas.

Mines were worked in northern Mexico before railways entered the country, but the development has been so marked since that event as to cause an entire transformation of the industry. Like the railways, the mines have had to import labor from the south; and they also have as steadily lost labor to the United States. The representative of one group of mining properties in the State of Chihuahua said that within a year he had brought to that vicinity approximately 8,000 mine laborers from Zacatecas and the older mining districts of central Mexico, and that not far from 80 per cent of these had left, a part going to New Mexico and the remainder to Arizona.

Thus there is a constant movement of labor northward inside of Mexico itself to supply the growing demands of the less-developed

States, and this supply is ultimately absorbed by the still more exigent demand—as expressed in wage rates—of the border States and Territories of the United States. Besides this, there is doubtless some recruiting, direct or indirect, by the representatives of American employment agencies. Men are met in Mexico who assert that they have either been engaged or have been approached with a view to engagement in this business. The contract labor and immigration laws of the United States are designed to apply to seaports and to oversea immigrants, therefore their provisions are not difficult to evade, because they are so inapplicable to conditions on the Mexican border. Still, a large part of this immigration is not stimulated, except by general economic conditions.

A number of the immigrants probably come with their own money, or with the assistance of friends or relatives already working in the United States. The migration of cotton pickers into Texas and into Oklahoma is almost entirely of this character at present, though a few years ago "bunches" of labor are said to have been recruited openly in Mexico for Texas plantations. And the tendency is for labor to come across more freely and spontaneously with increasing experience of the advantages afforded in the United States. Employment agents receive the newcomers at the boundary line, greeting them with usually bona fide offers of work at fair wages.

Recruited laborers, whether destined for northern Mexico or for the United States, travel in parties, under a boss or "cabo," who holds the tickets. One is told of locked car doors and armed guards on the platforms of trains to prevent desertions en route; but if these things ever occur, they were not observed in traveling along these lines. Desertions take place, however, and the problem of the recruiter is to deliver a sufficient number of laborers to make a plausible show for his fee—for he seldom delivers all he starts out with. This is not due to the fact that the work he offers is less attractive or well paid, but partly because the peon, in spite of his apparent simplemindedness, had already selected a different destination when he joined the party, and traveled with it only so far as the free transportation suited his convenience.

After he reaches the United States the Mexican is said to observe contracts better than itinerant white labor. An employment agent in Colorado said: "Roving Mexicans are better than roving white men. They will go to a job, if they agree to, and work, though they may not stay long." Another agent said he usually lost but 2 or 3 per cent of a gang of Mexicans sent to a job while en route, but that ten times that proportion of white men, doing the same kind of work, would desert, after receiving their transportation either the whole distance or to some intermediate point. Mexicans will leave a job after working a few days, and are constantly lured away from the

railways by farmers and ranchers. In 1907 30 per cent of those in southern Kansas are said to have deserted to work in the wheat fields. Whole gangs at a time leave the Texas sections to pick cotton. One contractor said he lost an entire gang, after paying $12.50 railway fare a head, before they reached the job to which they had been sent. A railway official in Dallas, though expressing satisfaction with Mexican track labor, said that 50 per cent left the road to work for the farmers soon after receiving their fare to their job. The Southern Pacific Company loses to the mines a large fraction of its labor each year. In the employment agencies the men's hands are examined, and those that have drill callouses, indicating that they have worked in mines in Mexico, are rejected for railway jobs, because they are the most likely to desert. The motive for leaving railway work is the higher wages paid in other occupations.

Most immigrants passing through El Paso reported that they had paid their own fare directly from some town named in one of the interior States, with money obtained by a "sacrifice"—such as the sale of a yoke of steers, a pair of burros, a crop of corn—or by loans from a "patron" or a relative. Several boys, who reported their ages as between 17 and 20 years, said they had been given money by their father to come to the United States to work, and that their father had obtained the money from his "patron" or by the sale of some small property. Many of these statements are doubtless true in substance, while others are manufactured for the occasion. Recruited laborers who are given transportation are probably supplied with personal information to be used at the frontier.

Interest was aroused by the number of immigrants who reported that they had paid their railway fare with money loaned them by a "patron." The name of the "patron" was often given, and he was sometimes a political officer—in one case a judge—and sometimes a merchant, possibly also a landowner. Strictly the word "patron" might be expected to mean an employer, and especially the employer to whom the immigrant had rendered traditional service as a peon. But this class of employers is so unanimously hostile to the emigration of labor that it is extremely unlikely that any one of them would assist this movement, even though he received a high rate of interest on his money. The immigrants claimed to be paying from 5 to 12 per cent for loans running probably six months. In the districts of Mexico from which this labor comes every one from whom information was sought, without exception, scouted the idea that a bona fide employer could be induced by any means within reach of his workmen to assist them to emigrate, even for temporary employment abroad. The common opinion there was that these so-called "patrons" were secretly representing employing interests either in northern Mexico or the United States, and that they were possibly

collecting railway fare from the employer on one hand and from the laborer on the other, charging the latter in addition with interest. Whether or not this is ever done, the story told by the immigrant on the border, of aid received from his "patron" to enable him to leave the country, is nowhere credited by well-informed residents of the interior.

Tickets from points in Jalisco and in Guanajuato to El Paso cost the emigrants from $20 to $25 in Mexican currency, or one-half that amount in American money. Laborers appear usually to provide themselves with from $30 to $50 (Mexican) for a trip to the United States. A good riding horse or a few pigs sell for the former sum, so it is not beyond the reach of most industrious peasants. Nearly all the immigrants who had left families behind them explained that they had given their wives a few dollars for subsistence during their absence.

Mexicans residing on the American side of the boundary line said that even where there is easy railway communication a laborer and his family will often travel 300 miles on foot to reach the border. This was near El Paso. During a good cotton season in Texas laborers often come on foot and go back in carriages which they have purchased with their season's earnings. Though the Mexican of the Indian type is not ambitious, when he once gets a definite object in view he appears to be very persistent in following it up. A youngish boy passing through the El Paso station stated, and as proof showed his calloused hands, that he had worked in a quarry in Mexico for two years. His wages had been $6 Mexican ($3 United States currency) a month and rations, and it had taken him the full two years to save money enough to get to the frontier. He wanted to come to the United States, because during one week he could earn more there than during a month in Mexico.

Immigration, especially through El Paso, was larger than usual during the season of 1907, partly because a drought had followed upon the unfavorably wet year of 1906. Crops were short, provisions expensive, and work not so abundant as usual in exclusively agricultural sections. This made it easier for the "enganchadores" (recruiters, or, more literally, pressmen) to secure workers for mines and for other large enterprises, and also stimulated voluntary emigration.

The Mexican laborer usually migrates for short periods. When the rains begin, usually about May, he must be at home to plant his crop. After that he is willing to work during the growing period, leaving his family to attend to irrigation and weeding; but he must be at home for the harvest. From that time until the fiestas ending with the December holidays are over, the labor market in Mexico is tight; from January to May the workman is willing to go anywhere pro-

vided it is not too cold. This seasonal variation in the labor supply accounts in part for the comparatively short periods for which immigrants come to the United States. Many of those passing through El Paso have made the trip from central Mexico to Arizona or to Kansas City for a second or third time, but after a number of such trips the home tie loosens, and it is not unusual for the family ultimately to accompany the husband, thus taking the next step toward a permanent removal, either across the border or to its vicinity.

Along the Mexican Central Railway the migrating months are said by the railway officials to be February, March, and April; also August and September.

DISTRIBUTING CENTERS.

Probably more Mexican laborers enter the United States through El Paso than cross the border either east or west of that city. During August, 1907, there were admitted at this point 5,802 laborers, and during September of the same year 5,765. From January to the end of September about 26,000 were admitted. The reasons that make El Paso the most important distributing point for Mexican immigration are its direct railway communication with the swarming States of Mexico; the presence across the border, in the State of Chihuahua, of large mines and smelters, which, in supplying their own needs, assist the southern laborer to the frontier; and the direct railway communication that the city enjoys with such chief labor-absorbing areas of the United States as the prairie grain and cotton region, the Colorado and the Territorial mining fields, and California. Three great railway systems that diverge from El Paso use Mexican unskilled labor largely, and in some cases almost exclusively, over a principal part of their route; and railways are the great labor feeders to other industries.

West of El Paso there is considerable diffusion of mining labor across the border both from northern Chihuahua and Sonora; and some labor enters from the west coast of Mexico, by the Guaymas line, through Nogales. After the Southern Pacific Company's extension is completed and a west coast connection made with Guadalajara, the capital of the populous State of Jalisco, and the second city in size of the Republic, it is probable that a much larger movement of labor will occur across this part of the boundary line.

Immigrants crossing the Rio Grande east of El Paso usually find employment in Texas, either upon railways or ranches or as farm laborers. Some of this immigration passes north into Oklahoma during cotton-picking time, and it works southeastward into Louisiana, where Mexicans are being introduced on cane plantations. Much of this labor reaches the frontier at Eagle Pass, at Laredo, and at

Brownsville. Near the latter town, in the early autumn of 1907, sixty boats were said to be employed ferrying Mexicans across to the United States. But the immigration to Texas is not confined to railway points to the same extent as farther west, partly because the neighboring sections of Mexico are a trifle less desert and partly because of the long-established intercourse all along the border, antedating the railways and even American possession of the country.

Of the border cities mentioned El Paso is the only one that is a real labor depot. San Antonio is probably the most important distributing point of Mexican labor for Texas proper. Kansas City, Mo., is given as their destination by many arrivals at El Paso, and that city is resorted to by them as an employment center. Los Angeles serves the same purpose for Southern California, and has a large colony from Old Mexico. Tucson, Ariz., and Trinidad and Denver, Colo., have agents that handle a fairly large number of Mexican laborers.

METHOD OF DISTRIBUTION.

The immigrants arrive at the border practically without funds, but with the moral certainty of securing immediate employment. Here they are met by the representatives of large authorized labor contracting companies, who regularly supply an entire railway system, or many of its divisions, with all the labor needed, and by private agents looking for smaller bodies of men for some special section, or simply speculating in labor; that is, holding it at their headquarters on subsistence until they can secure a good commission by delivering it to some enterprise badly in need of workers. These speculating agents are said to mislead men with promises of work at high wages which they are unable to provide, in order to keep them away from competing agencies.

The large labor contractors combine with this business that of supplying provisions, clothing, and other commissary articles to the workers during their term of employment. Indeed, this is their main source of revenue, and some firms are said to furnish labor to railways without commission in return for the privilege of keeping the commissary. The workingman buys at the commissary because he can get credit there, which is not given by other merchants; and the commissary can grant this credit, because its arrangement with the employing corporations gives it the exclusive right to charge such debts against the pay roll. Laborers who pay cash are generally free to patronize other stores. Although commissary debts are thus secured to some extent, prices are high, the reason given for this being that losses from bad debts are very heavy.

After the immigrant has been given a job he receives transportation to his place of work from the labor agent. This transportation

is furnished free by the railways to men employed by themselves and at reduced party rates to other employers. Besides this the agent has to provide subsistence to destination, an amount varying from less than a dollar to $3 or $4 in case of long journeys. This subsistence and paid railway fares are charged to the laborer's account and repaid by him from wages. The distance that a laborer may be sent varies from a few miles to 2,000 miles. One of the larger firms had sent Mexican laborers to different railroads, during eight months of 1907, as follows: To the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railway, 3,523; to the El Paso and Southwestern System, 1,593; to the Fort Worth and Denver City Railway, 973; and to the Pecos Valley and Northeastern Railway, 421.

Along the Texas border, and even in the larger labor centers, are men who secure laborers in small numbers for cotton and beet planters and other minor employers. Some of these recruiters are themselves hardly above the laboring class, and several are Mexicans or Spanish-speaking Americans. It is not unusual for a group of planters in northwestern Texas or Oklahoma, or a beet sugar company in Colorado, to send a manager or foreman to the Rio Grande to gather up a party of 100 or more men and their families, and some parties are taken even as far east as the Mississippi. But as a rule farmers and planters prefer to get laborers by offering higher wages than the railroads, thus drawing men from the sections and saving for themselves railway fare and the other expenses of recruiting.

In Mexico itself the "enganchadores" work principally among the city and tramp labor population, partly because in many country districts hostile sentiment and legislation make open recruiting dangerous. The "enganchados," as these recruited laborers are called, are not considered good workers by Mexican employers, and have the reputation of being mostly broken-down city workmen and loafers. Possibly they do not emigrate. American labor agents seem to think that men specially recruited from Mexico are better than those picked up by chance along the border. Possibly the recruiting for the American labor market is largely secret, and therefore conducted with more success in country districts and among a more reliable class of workmen than the labor drummed up openly for local enterprises.

The progress of the laborer from his home in interior Mexico to his place of work in the United States is therefore in two main stages; first, as a recruit he is taken, or as a free immigrant he works his way, to the border. At this point he falls into the hands of the labor agent, who passes him along to his final destination. The first stage of the journey may or may not be paid for by the laborer himself; the second is in practically all cases at the expense of the employer.

OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH MEXICANS ARE EMPLOYED.

RAILWAY LABORERS.

With the possible exception of agriculture at certain seasons, more Mexicans are employed in the United States as railway laborers than at any other occupation. It is from this occupation that they drift into other lines of work.

Mexicans are distributed as railway laborers over practically all of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. They are the main labor employed on the railroads of California as far north as Fresno, in southern Nevada, and in Colorado, and on some Colorado lines into Wyoming; also, they are working in increasing numbers along the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railway, and the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway through Kansas, Missouri, and even into Chicago and to central Iowa.

In Mexico native labor now does practically everything on a railroad except operate fast trains, superintend construction and administration, and do more responsible shopwork. In the United States this labor is confined to track maintenance—usually under American or European foremen—and construction, and employment as extra and yard gangs. There are many Mexican section bosses scattered throughout the Southwest, and their number is likely to increase.

The reasons for the growing use of Mexican labor in these occupations are that it is cheap and docile; but these qualities alone would not give it favor were it not also fairly efficient. Employers and foremen do not differentiate the various motives that induce them to prefer a certain kind of labor, but they are usually perfectly clear as to the order of choice among different nationalities.

A trackmaster who had worked various kinds of labor in southern Kansas said: "Mexicans are better than Greeks or Italians, and next to the American 'hobo.' They must be well fed, and want fresh beef and mutton, but don't eat so much pork. They don't have feuds and disorders like the Italians, who are always fighting unless the whole gang is from the same town in Italy. We send a man every spring to the Rio Grande to get our men for the summer. We have to keep our engagements with them, or we can't get any men the next year. Though they are used to low pay at home, they want as much as anybody when they get to this country." A Texas railway official said: "We have worked Mexicans out of El Paso for several years, and since 1903 have substituted them for Italians—who were disorderly—and for Negroes in northern Texas, nearly to Texarkana. They suit us better than any other immigrant labor we can get. They are better than Negroes at ballasting, laying ties, and ordinary track work; but the Negroes can beat them laying rails, and will work better long hours or at rush jobs, as in case of washouts or getting a track around

a wreck. Our chief difficulties are due to ignorance of the language, and to the rough ways of our foremen—who sometimes frighten the Mexicans so they won't work. Mexicans are not very regular, and we have to carry about 50 men on a pay roll to be sure of 30 to 35 men working every day."

A large labor contractor, who is also an employer, said: "I have not found Mexican laborers irregular on section work. They often average about twenty-five days a month. Some stay on the same section seven or eight years. Much depends on the foreman. I can tell the character of a section boss by the number of new men he wants. Some never need new men, because their old hands stay with them, and if any leave, others come from neighboring sections. I know good Mexican section foremen."

A road master in southern California said the Mexicans had been employed in his division four or five years and were displacing other labor. He preferred them to other laborers obtainable, especially to the Japanese. "When you have occasion to discharge one Japanese all would quit, and so you are left without men. But if a Mexican proves a poor or undesirable workman, you can let him go without breaking up the whole gang."

A railway contractor in Los Angeles expressed the same preference for the Mexican as compared with the Japanese, and said the latter could not be trusted to carry out a job just as directed, but that the Mexican was careful to do exactly as he was told. There was not a single instance in which men in actual touch with railroad labor did not give the Mexican the preference over either Japanese or Greek; but one manager stated that he would prefer Japanese, because they were more intelligent.

An objection to the Greeks, as stated by one contractor, was that they would submit to graft. On one system where Greeks were employed section bosses made them pay a dollar a month for their jobs, and shared the labor agents' fees when new men were brought on. The result was that the foremen, practically in the pay of their own workmen, lost authority over them, and the latter soldiered and neglected their work. Mexicans, it is said, will not submit to exactions of this kind, and this is a chief cause why they have lately been given a preference on the road in question.

No instances were discovered where the wages of section hands were less than $1 a day in 1907, although in previous years men may have worked for 75 and 80 cents in some places near the frontier. Shop laborers at Laredo, Tex., received 75 cents in 1906 and $1 in 1907. In addition to day wages, the men are given the use of huts or bunk cars. A short distance north from the border the rate of pay rises to $1.25 a day, and this is generally the wage along the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway and the Chicago, Rock Island and

Pacific Railway north of Texas. They received $1.40 and $1.50 a day in Kansas. In northern Texas section hands were paid $1.15 in 1907, and were paid $1 previously. In northern Arizona the rate had risen from $1 to $1.25 within a year or eighteen months. On the line of the Southern Pacific Company, near Bakersfield, Cal., the following rates were said to be in force for ordinary section hands: Greeks, $1.60; Japanese, $1.45, and Mexicans, $1.25 a day. Foremen said that the Mexicans did as much work as men of either of the other nationalities, and that the discrimination in wages was due to arbitrary orders issued from headquarters by men who had no practical knowledge of the efficiency of different kinds of laborers.

Extra gangs are paid higher wages, partly because it is often necessary for them to board in camps, instead of receiving rations, which makes their cost of living higher. Mexicans of this class were paid as high as $1.75 a day on the Fort Worth and Denver City Railway, in Texas, during the cotton-picking season of 1907. This high wage was partly to keep them away from the farmers. However, $1.50 is not an unusual wage for Mexican extra men. Upon one railway in central and eastern Texas section hands were paid, in the summer of 1907, $1 and board, or $1.50 when they boarded themselves. This matter of board is not always left to the choice of the laborer. If he lives in a section house or hut at a station or section headquarters and is permanently located on one section, he usually has an opportunity to board himself; but if his work requires him to shift from section to section, and he lives in bunk cars, he is usually boarded. The character of the board depends upon local conditions, but testimony was general to the effect that railroads fed their men better than the men fed themselves. The houses provided for section men are very primitive in most cases, frequently being single-room adobe huts or cabins built of condemned ties set vertically with a roof of boards covered with earth, and a clay floor. Often there are no glass windows. These houses are as good as the laborer occupied in Mexico and seem to be adapted to his mode of living.

As he goes northward the section hand encounters a more severe climate, but, to compensate for this, higher wages and better housing. In Oklahoma, during the summer of 1907, scattering Mexicans were employed at $1.50 a day, or the same wages paid Europeans. A gang of Mexicans worked near Fredonia, Iowa, until January 20, 1907, without apparent suffering. This was attributed to good food and warm houses.

In order to hold labor at lower wages the railroads give Mexicans return transportation to El Paso, if they have worked regularly three months. This applies to all railroads entering El Paso itself, but probably not to smaller lines and those distant from the frontier.

One line gives return passes only in the fall, so that a laborer beginning in February must work six months, one beginning in August but three months, to receive this benefit.

In Mexico wages are nominally about the same as immediately north of the border, but, being paid in silver, have only one-half the purchasing power of those in the United States. The National Railroad of Mexico pays section hands south of Saltillo $1, and north of that city to Laredo $1 and $1.25, which is double the rate paid two years ago. The Mexican Central Railway, in the neighborhood of the city of Chihuahua, pays section men $1.50 a day and track layers $1.75. The present exchange and purchasing power of these wages make them equivalent to from 50 to 87½ cents in United States currency. At Ciudad Juarez, across the river from El Paso, the Mexican Central Railway pays laborers $2 a day, equivalent to $1 in United States currency, and about the same real wage as was paid until the present year on many American railroads in the Southwest.

Mexican railway laborers live on very little when they draw rations, but demand a liberal diet (usually including fresh meat) when boarded. Board costs about 50 cents a day. One road charges $3.75 weekly, but its representative said that a Mexican ate on an average from 1 pound to 1½ pounds of fresh meat daily. Contractors and foremen find the efficiency of Mexican laborers so much greater when boarded that it pays to give them regular meals instead of rations, even though higher wages must be paid to compensate them for the increased cost of living.

Regulations as to rations limit the amount a man may draw to his wage credit. On one railway, when hands were paid $1 a day, they were allowed to draw 65 cents' worth of supplies for every day worked. Now that wages are $1.15 each man may draw to the value of 75 cents. This ration allowance is not sufficient for Mexicans accompanied by large families, therefore laborers have recently been divided into parties, each under a headman, or "cabo," who draws supplies equal to the aggregate ration credits of his party. The Mexicans then adjust among themselves the distribution, those having families buying the excess of the single men. The division is said to be made without disputes among the members of the different messes.

As a body, the railway laborers who have come from Mexico seem to be fairly well treated. The editor of a Spanish daily in the City of Mexico said that he had received letters from railroad hands in Texas saying they were ill treated, but that the contents of the letters, which had been lost or destroyed, did not impress him seriously. There were some complaints in Colorado and in New Mexico of petty grafting by minor railway officials. The laborers say that pay clerks take part of the pay due them from their envelopes, claiming the

shortages are caused by fines or deductions, when this is not so. An attorney for some of these men had correspondence showing that these charges were not unfounded. The companies try to suppress such dishonesty, because labor is scarce and Mexicans will leave work when they have grievances of this kind, and will prevent other laborers of their nationality from taking their places by reporting these wrongs. Few complaints were heard of ill treatment by brutal bosses. It seems likely that the Mexican's attitude of passive obedience antagonizes foremen less than the more aggressive attitude of Europeans and Orientals. Mexican foremen are employed in some places and are said to be satisfactory. The best evidence that the condition of this kind of labor is not very bad is that the immigrants return repeatedly to the same work, often in the same locality, after going home for a crop season or to see their families.

A hardship of which Mexicans and white laborers alike complain is the difficulty of getting their pay if they leave a job between pay days. The rules of most large employing concerns require the workman to come for his balance the next pay day, which may be nearly a month off. On the railroads men are usually paid, in such cases, if they come personally to division headquarters and properly identify themselves. Mexicans are often so ignorant of these formalities that they will walk a hundred miles or more to headquarters only to find that they have neglected some such requirement, and are therefore unable to get their money.

In Mexico natives are employed in many semiskilled occupations of the railway service at about the same wage as common laborers receive. Pullman car cleaners at Monterey are paid $1.50 (silver) a day. They work under a Mexican foreman and were reported by the American local manager as very reliable employees. At Aguas Calientes Mexican laborers and machinists or machinists' helpers are employed in the head shops of the Mexican Central Railway, laborers getting 50 cents (silver) a day and machinists' helpers and machinists from $2 to $5 (silver). American machinists, of whom there are a number employed, are usually paid monthly salaries, said to average $125 in American currency. This would make their daily pay about double that of the better-paid Mexicans. White employees said that their Mexican helpers were slow and not very efficient, it requiring two or three of them to do the work of an ordinary machinist's helper in the United States. They were said to lack ambition, to be irregular in shop attendance, and to drink hard after pay days, thus losing part of their time. The lack of ambition may be partly accounted for by the fact that they are kept subordinate to American and European workers by a line drawn in accordance with nationality rather than competency.

At the shops of the National Railroad of Mexico, in Laredo, common labor is paid $1 (gold) a day. Until last year, when there was a strike, they were paid 75 cents a day. The present wage of these laborers is about four times that paid in similar occupations in central Mexico.

FARM LABORERS.

The Mexican immigrant has been in most cases an agricultural laborer in his own country, and, though his experience at home has given him little familiarity with American farming methods, it is to this occupation in the United States that he turns most readily when the opportunity offers. Cotton and corn, the staple crops of the States where Mexicans are most numerous in this country, are both cultivated extensively in Mexico. Stock raising is a great industry on both sides of the boundary line. In this industry the Mexicans, many of whom were born north of the border, have excelled for a long period. They are now found as shepherds, cowboys, and "broncho busters" as far north as Wyoming. But the main importance of Mexican labor in agriculture is during the harvest season in the cotton fields. Cotton picking suits the Mexican for several reasons: It requires nimble fingers rather than physical strength, in which he can not compete with the white man or the Negro; it employs his whole family; he can follow it from place to place, living out of doors, which seems to suit the half-subdued nomadic instinct of a part of the Mexican race; it is a seasonal occupation, fitting in conveniently with the demands of labor and leisure in his own country, and it is well paid, and paid by the piece.

In Texas and in Oklahoma cotton is raised by prairie farming methods, with more extensive use of machinery than farther east, where soil and climate, and the cotton itself, are different. In these two States a white farmer can raise more cotton than several families can pick in proper season, in the same way that the Kansas farmers can raise more wheat in normal years than the resident labor of the State can harvest. So the man with 40 or 80 acres of cotton opening secures two or three families of Mexicans that migrate from the southward at this season, camp in an outhouse or in their canvas-topped carts, and pick the fields clean, then move on northward to where the crop is just maturing.

Pickers are paid from 50 cents to $1 a hundred pounds in the seed. Two or three hundred pounds is a fair day's work, though under favorable conditions 400 pounds are sometimes gathered. Children often pick as much as adults, so that a man with a family can earn $5 or more a day during the height of the season.

In Texas Mexicans are employed throughout the year on onion and vegetable farms and as tenants or hired cultivators on cotton and rice plantations. Their home experience makes them very good

irrigators. For the cultivation of onions they are paid by the hundred. Wages on farms in southeastern Texas are about $15 a month, the Mexican receiving shelter, but boarding himself. Wages, except during the very busy seasons, are about 60 cents a day. Mexicans are good grubbers, and are about the only laborers employed to clear the south Texas ranches of mesquite brush prior to cultivation. They do this work under contract by the acre, rates varying with the neighborhood and the amount of brush growing on the land. Near the lower Rio Grande ranch hands and shepherds are paid less. A Mexican interviewed had relatives working on a ranch near Laredo for $8 a month and rations; but this was less than is commonly paid in the vicinity. In the country districts on both sides of the border Mexican money is current, and not many years ago it was not unusual to pay the wages of herders in this coin. Mexican shepherds in Lasalle County, Tex., were paid $12 (Mexican currency) a month and a ration of coffee, beans, corn meal, salt, and goat meat.

Within two or three years wages have risen rapidly in the part of Texas dependent upon Mexican ranch and farm labor. A farmer in Ward County, near the western border of the State, said that in 1903 Mexican farm hands could still be hired for 50 and 75 cents a day, American currency, but that in 1907 they were paid $1 and $1.25 a day, and even higher. White farm labor commands $1.75 and $2 a day in the same country.

In Kansas and in northern Oklahoma many Mexicans now leave railway gangs to work in the grain fields during the harvest season. Contractors estimate that nearly one-third leave them for this reason.

In the vicinities of Rocky Ford and Sugar City, Colo., in the valley of the upper Arkansas, sugar beet cultivation has extended rapidly within the past seven years, and there are now six large factories operating in this district. Here immigrants from Old Mexico compete with New Mexicans, Russians, and Japanese in the beet and the melon fields. New Mexican laborers have been employed since 1900, but Old Mexicans have come in more recently. The latter have not displaced other laborers to the same extent as on the railways, but seem to have held their own without difficulty.(a)

The beet factories own considerable land, which they cultivate either directly or through tenants; but they depend chiefly upon neighboring farmers for their supply of beets. The farmers raise under contract with the factories and their crop is financed partly by the manufacturers. The sugar companies also bring in what labor is needed from outside, assuring men an opportunity to earn 15 cents

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a For convenience the term "Old Mexicans" is used in this article to designate persons of Mexican descent born in Mexico, and "New Mexicans" to designate those of Mexican descent born in the United States, and mainly in New Mexico.

an hour. They advance railway fare from El Paso—about $9.50 for each adult. Prices for contract work are the same for all nationalities, but Indian schoolboys from New Mexico have been brought in to work by the hour and are somewhat cheaper than other workers. However, on account of school duties, they work only in the spring. The contract price for thinning beets is about $7 an acre, though it may range anywhere from $6 to $8. Beets are topped by the ton, the usual rate being 50 cents. A crop runs from 15 to 25 tons per acre. Japanese usually try to secure at least 15 acres to thin and top, but Mexicans will take less. Between the thinning and the topping season many Mexicans work in the melon fields at from 15 to 20 cents an hour, or find employment on the railway at $1.25 to $1.30 a day. The consensus of opinion among a number of beet growers was that Russians made the best laborers, both for the farmer and for the country, because they were better workers and ultimately bought land and became citizens. There was a less decided disposition to prefer Japanese to Mexicans, but the laborer from Old Mexico was generally preferred to the Spanish-speaking laborer from New Mexico as being both a more regular and a more reliable hand. At some mills Mexicans are preferred to Japanese. An attempt has been made, by building an adobe village, to hold the Mexicans as permanent settlers in the vicinity of the Swink factory.

The chief complaints against the Mexicans are that they are not reliable in observing their contracts and will not work regularly. The first brought into the country, about 1900, were driven out by hostile workingmen and farmers, but this sentiment against them is said to have disappeared. In competition with other and constantly more varied nationalities they are not increasing, or increase but slowly. In 1907 Koreans began to be employed—displacing principally the Japanese—and the temporary immigration of some 600 Indian laborers satisfied a demand that had formerly been filled by Mexicans. But immigrants from Old Mexico are displacing New Mexicans, and they continue to be more numerous than workers of any other nationality. Meantime, they are finding new fields of employment in kindred occupations elsewhere. Recently they have been shipped to some extent to the Greeley, Colo., potato country, where Europeans and Japanese have been the only imported labor employed heretofore.

In the irrigated sections of New Mexico and of Arizona local Spanish-speaking laborers, supplemented by some Mexicans from across the border, are employed in raising vegetables and alfalfa and other forage crops. When an attempt was made recently to establish sugar beet cultivation in the Salt River valley, Arizona, Japanese were brought in to raise this crop; but the enterprise failed, and the Japanese have left, not competing with Mexican laborers—who are

paid as high as $2 a day at certain seasons—in other lines of farming and in ranching.

Mexicans are employed by fruit growers, sugar beet raisers, and general farmers in southern California; but in this State they are not relatively so important a source of rural labor supply as they are in Texas. Nevertheless the more extensive employment of Mexicans by the railroads is likely to result in their being used more by the farmers, who secure hands from railway gangs. Farm wages in southern California are very high, in many places not less than $2 for good men, and this wage attracts a considerable supply of American labor.

From Texas, Mexicans have been taken east as far as the Mississippi River, and a few gangs of cotton pickers have been tried even in the Yazoo Delta, but with only partial success. The employment of Mexicans on cane plantations, already tried experimentally, may increase, more particularly during the harvest season; but they are not likely to be employed as mill laborers, and so far as could be learned have never been used in beet sugar factories.

The main value of the Mexican in agriculture is as a temporary worker in crops where the season is short, especially in harvesting cotton, grain, and sugar beets. Mexicans are not likely to be employed the year round by small farmers, because they are not entertained in the family like American, German, Scandinavian, or Irish laborers of the North. Yet they do not occupy a position analogous to that of the Negro in the South. They are not permanent, do not acquire land or establish themselves in little cabin homesteads, but remain nomadic and outside of American civilization.

MINE LABORERS.

Mexicans have become in a way the scavengers of the mining industry, picking up the positions left vacant by other classes of workers, and supplanting the least skilled and reliable Europeans and Asiatics. They mine both coal and metal at different places, especially in small mines with shallow workings, and are extensively employed as muckers and surface men. The Mexican is a fairly good man for development work, or for cheap mining undertakings where a poor or a penurious company wishes to "rat hole" a property; that is, work out the ore without scientific development or expert engineering advice. In Old Mexico native miners are employed exclusively in deep and dangerous workings that would try the skill of experienced white labor. Mining is in parts of that country almost a hereditary occupation with a certain class of workers; but miners of this kind either stay at home or else do not form a sufficiently important element in the Spanish-speaking mine popula-

tion of the American border States and Territories to raise the general character of this labor.

In the copper and silver mines of New Mexico and of Arizona, American and Cornish miners are employed, with considerable numbers of Italians and Slavs, who are both miners and laborers. The latter two nationalities predominate in the coal mines. American Negroes are sometimes employed as hostlers and mule men, but are rarely miners. In the larger camps, and in small camps connected with important properties, union labor is used. The Mexican supplements all these other kinds of labor. He will be found mining copper and silver—that is, using drill and powder—in some new mine opened in a new district, to the entire exclusion of white labor, yet later, if the property proves valuable, he may be supplanted wholly by skilled American miners. In a district where white labor is chiefly used a few Mexicans will sometimes be found in smaller and less profitable workings. In most border districts large gangs of Mexican surface men, wood choppers, and often muckers are encountered. There are large mining centers—as at Fierro, Silver City, and San Antonio, N. Mex., where coal and iron as well as other metals are mined—that use Mexican labor mainly, stripping and in shafts and drifts. This mingling of Mexican and white labor, without either supplanting the other entirely, comes from an equilibrium of competitive conditions, due to the general scarcity of labor, the extensive development now occurring, and the easy adjustment of the wage of the Mexican to his true worth. The rates paid white miners are standardized by custom and by union regulations and range from $3 to $5 a day. Mexicans will accept a rate much lower than this—not exceeding $2 a day in most places—but they do not do as much work as a white man. Mining men were undecided which got out the ore for the least money. In one mine, where a complete change from Mexican to American miners had been made within twelve months, one of the owners attributed the change to the fact that the new manager was used to working with white men, adding that there was no special economy in changing, and at the same time no appreciable loss. He suggested, however, that a manager working for absentee owners might make a little more out of the Mexicans for himself, especially if he had an interest in the company store. Another mine owner, who was employing Mexicans alone, said that he was influenced by fear of labor difficulties—that his mine was isolated and a white union might tie it up entirely; but that if some of the Mexicans left him or became dissatisfied he could easily replace them.

In the coal mining district around Trinidad, Colo., Mexicans have been employed as strike breakers; but with Mexican labor exclusively the output of the mines was so irregular as to cause serious losses;

therefore, in this field other labor has been substituted almost entirely. The Mexicans make very fair coke pullers, and are employed especially upon extra gangs. They seem to prefer the irregular work and pay they get in these gangs to the monotony of steady employment even at a sure wage.

Within the Mexican labor area of the United States there are four coal-mining districts. The most important is in southern Kansas and Oklahoma, which employs chiefly Italians and Negroes, with no Mexicans except a few surface men employed at an extreme offshoot—possibly not strictly a part of this field—at Thurber, Tex. The field of next importance and of prime importance for coking and ore reduction is in southern Colorado and northern New Mexico, the largest mines in the Territory having been opened within a year or two. Here Spanish-speaking labor, from both New Mexico and Mexico, is employed to some extent, though Slavs and Italians do most of the actual mining. In a careful analysis of the nationality of the mine workers employed by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company in 1905, Dr. Walter Morritt, of the sociological department of the company, gives the following figures: North Italians, 1,139; South Italians, 489; Austrians, 851; Americans, 687; Mexicans, 650; Slavs, 355; Negroes, 304; English, 297; Hungarians, 245; Japanese, 105; Germans, 79; Poles, 68; Welsh, 68; Scotch, 58; Greeks, 58; Russians, 51; Montenegrins, 29; Swedes, 27; Irish, 26; French, 15; Finlanders, 12; Roumanians, 7; Arabs, 5; Swiss, 1, making a total of 5,626. The proportion of Mexicans—and the term here is applied to Spanish-speaking workers from both sides of the border—was larger than previously because this class of labor had been used as strike breakers during the strike of 1903–4. Doctor Morritt expresses the following unfavorable opinion of these workers: "The Indian and the Mexican are both utterly unadapted to the work of mining. The Mexican can be depended on for a certain amount of surface work, but he can rarely be persuaded to work underground. He is shiftless and lacks ambition, and only in time of strike, when extra inducements are offered in the way of best rooms in the mines, generous weights, donations of liquor on the part of the pit boss, is any underground work to be gotten out of him at all; and even then he is not to be relied upon after he has a few dollars to his credit with which to buy 'Dago Red,' as the cheap adulterated whisky is called."

But there are exceptions. The superintendent of one of the largest camps of this company said that while he did not employ enough Mexicans underground to affect the output of the mine materially, because they could not be relied upon to turn out the same amount every day, he found places for such as wanted to work. Mexicans averaged seventeen to eighteen days in their rooms, where European

miners averaged twenty-three and twenty-four days. Miners are paid 55 and 60 cents a long ton, mine run, in this district. Six of the best Mexicans earned, upon an average, within a fraction of $55 each during the month of August, 1907, while the six best Italians and Slavs averaged within a fraction of a dollar of $107 each during the same month. It is probable that the Europeans had better rooms, but they had no preference in rates and other conditions of employment. One mine superintendent spoke of the Mexican laborer as filling a peculiar place in the mining field, comparing him with the Italian as follows: "An Italian demands a good job and will work every day. You must show him that he can earn a good wage all the time. He wants to be sure that he will have so much at the end of the week. A Mexican is not particular about the kind of a job he gets, and will not work every day. He doesn't care about knowing how much he will earn the next month. He is willing to shift from job to job, and do one thing one day and another the next, while the Italian doesn't like that. So the Mexicans make good reserve labor, for emergencies and odd jobs. They will do a kind of work it is hard to get other labor to do, because they like to change about and don't want much money; that is, they don't care about saving anything." The manager of the coke ovens at this camp said that among the coke pullers three were Italians for one Mexican, but that among the day labor used around the ovens the proportion was about reversed. He thought Mexicans made good pullers, but they were not sure to be on hand when needed.

Most of the Mexican laborers in this district are American born, and though more intelligent, are less steady than laborers from Old Mexico. The faults that are here described would not be chargeable in the same degree to Mexican peasants who had emigrated to the United States and were far enough from home to feel their dependence upon a regular wage. The local Mexican laborers of Colorado and of New Mexico usually own a cabin and a small piece of land within walking distance of the camp, or within a day's journey, and therefore are more independent of regular wages.

The wages at the coke ovens were recently 80 and 90 cents per oven for pulling and loading on railway car. Levelers and chargers were paid 20 cents per hour; washers, 18½ to 20 cents per hour, and laborers 18½ cents per hour. A labor agent sent 14 immigrant Mexicans to the coke ovens near Trinidad, Colo., the day before his office was visited. They were to receive $1.50 a day and rations.

A third coal mining field is along the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway, near Gallup, N. Mex., within a few miles of the Arizona border. Only about 1,000 men are said to be employed in this district, at several mines. A majority are Italians and Slavs, and the prevailing rate is 58 cents a ton, mine run, 5 tons being a good

eight hours' work. Japanese and Negroes have been employed unsuccessfully. A few Mexicans work underground; and the surface men are mostly New Mexicans and Indians. As miners they are not so good as Italians or Slavs, but equal the Japanese and the Greeks. Only a few Mexicans are employed, and they are not thought to be as good as New Mexicans. The latter are not local residents, but come from other parts of the Territory.

Along the Rio Grande, on both sides of the river near Eagle Pass and Laredo, are mines of soft coal and lignite. Only Mexican miners are employed, though other nationalities have been tried. The reasons for this are the poor quality of the coal, the thin veins in some places, the arid country, and the heat and other climatic conditions, all unfavorable to white miners, and the proximity of large coal mining camps in Mexico employing native labor. About 1,000 men are employed by three companies in the vicinity of Laredo, and the number would be increased to 1,500 were labor obtainable. Workings are shallow and reached by inclines. The roof is bad and requires continuous timbering. The ton rate was not learned, but a manager said that miners could earn $50 gold a month, but that they did not work regularly enough to do this. Near Eagle Pass the coal is better and the vein is worked from a shaft. The vein averages 6 to 8 feet, shooting coal. From 70 to 80 cents (American currency) a ton is paid, and good men can get out 2 tons a day. Labor is not scarce at present, but was before houses were repaired and prices lowered at the commissary. On the Mexican side of the river, in the same field, miners receive $1.25 (silver) a ton, which is said to be the highest rate paid in Mexico.

The Mexican miner has the reputation of being very careless in mines, both in timbering and in the use of powder, yet the Eagle Pass mines report only one fatal accident, in the mine itself, during eleven years of operation. This accident was due to a Mexican miner who entered a heading marked dangerous (skull and cross bones) by the inspector and tried for gas with an open lamp. He and his partner were both killed. In Mexico several serious mining accidents have been caused in this way, though the management had taken precautions to warn men of their danger. At Eagle Pass several Mexican miners were blown up while dividing a keg of powder which they had emptied out upon the floor of a cabin with an open fire in it. The powder looked lumpy, and one man threw a piece into the fire to see if it was good. Such ignorant carelessness is one reason why American miners are unwilling to work in company with Mexicans.

The wages of metal miners in Arizona were given by one mine owner as $2.50, which is double the rate paid a few years ago. In the Patagonia mines, which have always employed Mexicans, miners

were said to earn $2 to $3 a day. Another mine manager in the same Territory said that when Americans were employed on time wages they were paid $4 in the drifts and $4.75 in the shafts. The latter were usually wet. The Mexican employees were either machine men, who earned $2.50 to $3 a day, or surface men and laborers in the mine, who were paid $2 a day. At the Greene Cananea Copper Company mines at Cananea, Mexico, 40 miles south of the Arizona border, the following wages were paid in 1907 according to a statement by the owners: Mexican miners, $3 a day; founders, in the smelter, $3 to $8 a day; common laborers (pick and shovel men), $2.50, and superior laborers, $3 a day. These wages are in Mexican currency and must be divided by two to give the rate in American money. At Silver City, N. Mex., Mexican miners were said to earn $2 and $3 a day. A mine owner in the same part of the Territory said that he was paying Mexicans, who were doing developing work in a copper mine, $2 a day and rations. He had contracts with New Mexicans to sink a shaft at from $6 to $10 a foot, the rate varying with dimensions of the shaft and the character of the rock. The owner supplied powder and intrusted the work entirely to the men, only measuring off their work before advancing money on their contract. However, as compared with these wages, one Arizona mine owner was looking for labor in the vicinity of El Paso to take to Arizona, expecting to pay but $1.50 a day. Without access to the books of a large number of mines, it would be impossible to estimate with any degree of assurance the average rates paid Mexican miners in these two Territories and the ratio their wages bear to those of white miners. Conditions vary in each mine, according to its remoteness from market, the deepness and danger of the workings, the cost of living, and whether it is worked on a time or contract basis. Futhermore, the actual earnings of Mexicans are affected by the irregularity with which they work.

It is certain that mining labor can not be held for less than $1.50 a day, which is but 25 cents more than the railroads pay for less strenuous work, and it seems reasonable to assume that the Mexicans employed in mining occupations in the Territories do not earn on an average less than $2 a day. This is about 50 cents more than they earn at Cananea, Mexico, where wages are probably as high as at any place in the Republic. In the lead silver mines around Chihuahua, where labor is dear for Mexico, surface men and muckers earn $1.50 to $2 a day. Mexican machine men receive from $2 to $3.50 a day, which is about the upper limit of mine earnings. Men who drill in pairs are paid 25 cents a "cuartilla," which is a trifle over 8 inches. Ten "cuartillas" each is considered a fair day's work. All of these wages and earnings quoted for Chihuahua are in Mexican currency, with a purchasing power about one-half that of American money.

As one goes south wages lessen. In one of the best mines of the Zacatecas district drillers are paid 85 cents each ($1.70 for the pair) for 1½ meters (59.06 inches), and 1 cent each for every centimeter (0.39 inch) above that. Miners who work regularly at this rate earn $1.50 to $2 a day. Muckers are paid $1 a day, ore sorters 75 cents, and common surface laborers 60 cents. This means from a maximum of $1 down to 30 cents a day in American currency. Sixty miles back from the railroad miners are paid but 75 cents (silver) a day. Ore sorting is an occupation of some importance. It is simply concentrating by hand, and is necessary in a country like Mexico, where ore is still brought to the railway on the backs of burros.

Mexican miners who cross the border from the States of Chihuahua and Sonora are considered a distinct class from the "cholos," or common laborers. But this is a trade distinction, since the miners are often quite as dark—that is, quite as much Indians—as the laborers. Managers and mine superintendents in the United States usually rate the Mexican-born miner very low, while mine employers in Mexico often hold a contrary opinion. One American manager said: "Mexicans have no heads and would be very expensive labor if paid anything like the same wage as whites." They are considered careless timbermen, not to be trusted except under white supervision. An English manager in Mexico said they did good timbering under competent supervision, but were very slow. In some Mexican mines near the border American miners are employed to shoot the blasts, because their better judgment in using powder compensates for the very high wages they are paid. A manager who had used Mexicans in Nevada said: "Mexicans will work in a smaller place than an American. They are good sluice box men and strippers, but you can't trust them, either to work honestly or with high grade ore." Ore stealing is very common among miners in Mexico, and there are buyers—sometimes Americans—in the chief mining centers of that country who make a regular business of purchasing high grade ores in small lots without asking where it came from. A mine owner in New Mexico remarked that Mexicans were often remarkably good judges of the quality and value of an ore. A mine owner in Lower California said his Mexicans were quick to learn, and that some would drill 12 feet a day per man in gneiss. It was remarked by other mine owners that miners in remote parts of the country, uninfluenced by modern ideas, worked harder and did more in a day than Mexicans in the vicinity of large camps and those who had been to the United States. Nevertheless, most testimony as to the effect of emigration upon the labor efficiency of Mexicans was the reverse of this.

One reason why Mexican miners are less esteemed in the United States than in Mexico is that, even assuming their efficiency to increase

somewhat with emigration, their wage rises in a still higher ratio. North of the border white miners are everywhere preferred on machines. Many Americans are employed as machine men in the country immediately south of the border, where Mexican labor commands high wages, but in Zacatecas, where the experiment was tried with selected American miners who were expert machine men and otherwise satisfactory employees, it was found considerably more economical to use Mexican machine men at the respective wages there prevailing.

American miners usually will not work in company with Mexican miners. One reason, as stated, is that the Mexicans are careless, use powder with poor judgment, and do not pin a mine well, so that where they are employed there is a considerable element of added risk. Another reason is the hostility of miners' unions to the employment of Mexicans as skilled laborers in mines.

The opposition of the unions to Mexicans is due largely to two causes. They are cheap labor, and though their lower wages may not lessen the labor cost of production, on account of their lower efficiency, they constantly threaten the maintenance of the union wage. Also, the Mexicans have been used as strike breakers.

The use of Mexicans to break strikes and to prevent the introduction of the closed shop in mining districts is described in a typical instance—the Colorado coal strike of 1903–4—by a representative of the employers as follows:

> Equally favorable to the operators in Colorado is the presence of the Mexican. In the Eastern States the first effect of a strike is the worst, and its success depends largely upon the suddenness with which men leave. In Colorado it is otherwise. I have pointed out that the Mexican procures his livelihood at the cost of the least exertion. Ordinarily speaking, he can not find employment in the mines so long as more profitable labor is to be had. But in straits the Mexicans are given rooms in the mines. They do not get these at any direct advance in wages, but there are many ways—assignment of the most preferable rooms, liberal weights and measures, and sometimes a free-hand distribution of whisky—whereby the actual wage is increased.
>
> The Mexican thus brought to see that by a few weeks of hard labor in the mines he may earn more than by desultory attention to his goats for many months will regretfully drop the staff and take up the pick until he has perhaps laid up $100. Then feeling rich he will work no longer. The shock of the strike is greatly lessened and its pressure upon the operators postponed until the latter may in some degree forearm themselves and the strength of the strikers is somewhat exhausted. Thus the native Mexican acts as a buffer to the blows of the strikers. The Mexican himself rarely strikes.

Most of the Mexicans above described were born in the United States. They owned little homesteads, and were not forced to work, and they lived about as far north as Mexicans are employed in numbers and where their wage relatively to that of whites is highest.

In the West and in Mexico the principal industry subsidiary to mining is smelting. Very few Mexicans are employed in the Colorado steel works; but in smelters they have been used at times in that State, and are largely employed nearer the frontier. In Mexico some of the largest plants in the world are run entirely by this labor, under American and European supervision. Those employed around the steel works and smelters in Colorado are chiefly engaged in chopping wood and in hauling fuel. One large smelter had, at the time it was visited, no Mexicans on its pay rolls, though some had been employed occasionally in the past. Most of the work is done by contract, at fixed rates per ton of ore, and neither Mexicans nor Japanese can compete with the physically stronger and more robust Italians and Austrians. Japanese tried unloading ore at this smelter, but they could earn only $1.25 a day, while Austrians working beside them at the same rate per ton were earning $1.75 and over daily. An employment agent in Denver said he had recently filled an order from the Union Pacific Railroad Company with 40 men from Mexico who were to be used at shoveling coal. That work is about the same as unloading ore, but it is probable that the Mexicans were contented with much lower earnings than would satisfy Japanese and Europeans. A smelter engineer in Arizona said that in that Territory Mexicans were employed mostly in small smelters, performing all the common labor for a wage averaging about $2 a day. The large custom smelters employ fewer Mexicans. An eight-hour day is worked, because, though the Mexicans can stand hot work, they can not work long hours in the very hot surroundings of a desert smelter. Another informant mentioned smelters where but three white men were employed—an engineer, an assayer, and a superintendent. At the El Paso smelter, where labor from Mexico is very largely used, men were receiving from $1.10 to $1.25 a day.

In Mexico itself native smelter labor was said to be very satisfactory after it was trained. At Zacatecas laborers were paid 5 and 6 "reales," amounting to 62½ and 75 cents in local currency, or half that amount in American money. At a very large American smelter in Aguas Calientes men were being paid 62½ cents (silver) a day, which was an increase of 25 per cent over the rate paid in the spring of 1907. Besides this, in order to encourage regular work, if a laborer lost but one workday in any month he was paid the extraordinary premium of 50 cents (silver) a day for that month. These laborers were observed lined up on pay day. Several received sums that would indicate that they had earned the premium. They were fairly sturdy and well fed, in marked contrast to the peons who came in to market from the neighboring "haciendas." Yet the smelter workers are themselves peasants and usually leave work in July to put in their crops. There is a constant labor shortage, though the manager said his best laborers did not emigrate.

LUMBERING AND WOODWORKING.

The lumber industry is not important in the section of the United States where Mexican labor is common. At Albuquerque, N. Mex., and at Flagstaff and a few other places in northern Arizona, there are sawmills of some size, supplied with timber from mountain camps at a considerable distance. The American Lumber Company, in Albuquerque, has about 1,000 employees, of whom something over one-half are Spanish-speaking, though mostly American born. A few of the latter are employed in the camps, but most of them are laborers and lumber pilers at the mills, where they earn from $1.25 to $2 a day. Immigrant Mexicans were to be distinguished from natives, according to the superintendent, only by being slightly slower and duller. They were not considered ideal laborers, but improved and were willing to learn. Young New Mexicans were employed as bench workers and in operating machines in the box factory, where they earned up to $2.75 a day. They were reported to work regularly and to give satisfaction.

At Flagstaff, where some 500 men are employed in mill and camp, a large majority of the laborers are New Mexicans, and give satisfaction. About 20 immigrant Mexicans were employed as tie cutters, earning $2 a day. They are also satisfactory. Mexicans were employed as section men on the logging road.

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Some Mexican laborers are located in city colonies, having drifted away from the railroads to engage in various occupations requiring little skill. During the clearing-up operations at San Francisco they worked by the side of Italians and Japanese, sometimes in groups, often scattered among workmen of other nationalities, earning the regulation $2 a day. Contractors in that city spoke of them as less efficient than Italians, but seemed to place them vaguely in the same class. As the demand for unskilled labor lessens they will probably be replaced entirely by Europeans.

In Los Angeles and vicinity Mexicans of California descent and immigrants are employed as builders' helpers and in minor occupations connected with construction. Parties of these laborers were unpacking and passing tile in a large steel office building. Employers say these workers are mainly from Mexico. They carry hods and drive dirt carts. Through the southern counties of Arizona, in the Gadsden Purchase, there has always been a larger Mexican population than in any other parts of the Territory, and here—in such towns as Phoenix and Tucson—the less skilled building trades are largely controlled by workers of this nationality. As at Laredo and at other Mexican-American frontier towns, the better class of these

workers enter trade unions, or form unions separate from their English-speaking colleagues. In these occupations men earn from $1.50 to $2 a day. At Monterey, Mexico, similar laborers, employed on a large ice plant, were paid but 75 cents (silver) a day. An American manager in Monterey said Mexicans worked fairly well under foremen of their own nationality, but that as soon as they had finished what they were told to do they folded their arms and stood still until they received further instructions.

In southern California and in Texas Mexicans do most of the excavating and road building, and are otherwise employed on public works. In the former State a contractor said Mexicans could drive a two-mule scraper, but that he would not trust them with a four-mule scraper. They were paid $2.25 a day. White laborers were preferred, because they received the same wages, except that the four-mule scraper drivers were paid $2.50 a day. Asphalt and cement workers, except skilled hands, are paid $1.25 a day in Los Angeles. Mexicans accept lower wages in the city, because they can be with their families. The pay rolls of one contracting firm, engaged largely in street grading and in other public works, showed that Mexican laborers were paid from 22½ to 30 cents an hour in the vicinity of the city. In San Antonio, Tex., street laborers are paid $1.25 and $1.50 a day. They are mostly Mexican immigrants or of Mexican descent. A number of Mexicans are employed by the Government upon its irrigation projects in the southwest. They were said to be receiving the same pay as other laborers—that is, from $2 to $2.50 for an eight-hour day—but it was evident from talk with the foremen that where uniform wages are paid, as in this instance, other laborers are much preferred.

In the city colonies of Mexican immigrants, especially in families where children have attended public school, evidences begin to appear of a differentiation of employments, and a rise of the more intelligent to a better class of positions. In Los Angeles immigrant Mexicans are working in slaughterhouses and in meat shops. One boy is foreman of a bed spring factory, receiving $18 a week. A number of girls work in canneries and at packing crackers. One girl is clerk in a 10-cent store that caters to Mexican trade. A few women are said to be employed in clothing factories, though none were actually found in this occupation. At Austin, Tex., a number of Mexican girls work in a candy factory, where they are said to be more regular and to have better morals than white help.

But Mexican women and children do not usually work in factories in the United States. This is partly because husbands and fathers oppose it, having a peasant prejudice to their women leaving home, and it is partly because these women lack the foundations of industrial training. For the same reason Mexicans do not become domestic

servants. Women of the better laboring class will not leave home, and the immigrant women have so little conception of domestic arrangements in the United States that the task of training them would be too heavy for American housewives. The fairly well-trained servants of Mexico do not emigrate. Even in that country the Chinese are often the only competent and trustworthy servants obtainable by American residents.

CHARACTER, AND COMPARISON WITH OTHER NATIONALITIES.

The Mexican laborer is unambitious, listless, physically weak, irregular, and indolent. On the other hand, he is docile, patient, usually orderly in camp, fairly intelligent under competent supervision, obedient, and cheap. If he were active and ambitious, he would be less tractable and would cost more. His strongest point is his willingness to work for a low wage.

Though Mexicans lack ambition, they are alert in certain ways. In the Colorado beet country they are said to be the first to reach a section where higher wages are paid. "Quick to catch on," was the expression used in characterizing them. A California contractor, who had very broad experience with laborers of this nationality, said: "They have more intelligence than you think at first. They learn quickly, so that they can do anything in asphalt work." Other employers, both in Mexico and in the United States, noted similar qualities in their laborers; the usual opinion, however, is that they are dull.

Though careless in some ways about money, the Mexicans are very tenacious of their rights. Many disputes arise between them and the farmers employing them on contract in the beet fields. Their suspicions of the fairness of their employer seem easily aroused, and they will quit a job at once if they think they are being cheated. One employer said the Mexicans were always trying "to do" their boss, but this opinion of them is not common. Many of them drink to excess, and lose time after a spree; but they never attack a man placed over them, and they settle their rows among themselves.

Ordinarily their credit is poor, and commissary managers complain of losing much money through Mexican patrons. One storekeeper, in a Colorado mining camp, tried the experiment of extending to some of the old settled and more reliable Mexicans credit to the amount of $25 on thirty days' time; but the men slowly fell behind in their accounts and would not pay up, and the experiment was abandoned after six months. This manager said he would trust ten Italians rather than one Mexican. On the other hand, when the payment of a debt depends upon a sentimental obligation,

or something more than everyday commercial honor, it is generally paid. The assistant general manager of one of the Texas railroads said that he had often loaned a dollar or two to Mexican workmen, who chanced to be stranded in the city, and who had at one time been employed by the road, and that they had never, in a single instance, failed to repay him. In one case a sick man, with a family, on his way back to Mexico borrowed $2, which was given as an act of charity without expectation of its being returned. But a few weeks or months later, when the man was well again and had returned to work, he stepped into an office of the same railroad several hundred miles off, and handed the money to the agent to be forwarded to the lender. Money lenders in Mexico seem to loan money without much security to intending emigrants—though the actual conditions under which these loans are made could not be discovered. But probably in such cases there is some means of exacting payment in case the emigrant ever returns to his home and family.

Mexicans who have families are said generally to be faithful to their marriage relations. Yet this common testimony of employers and foremen and those dealing most with these laborers was directly contradicted by other men in a position to be equally well informed. The devotion of the Mexican laborer to his family while it is with him, and his desire to return to it in Mexico, are everywhere recognized by Americans. The bishop of an American Catholic diocese, himself a Spaniard, said that as a rule the immigrants sent money to their families left in Mexico and ultimately either returned to them or brought them to the United States; but that cases occurred where a man deserted his family in Mexico and took up with some woman of his class in the United States.

Wherever immigrant Mexican laborers are employed in any numbers in the Southwest postmasters reported that they sent money back to Mexico. Usually the postal orders were for small sums, but often they made a respectable total in the aggregate. From Rocky Ford, Colo., some $300 a month is thus sent. By reason of the fact that the laborers there work but for a season, most of them doubtless hoard their earnings (such as they do not spend currently) and carry them back with them on their return. Near Gallup, N. Mex., mine and railroad laborers send money home through the post-office, and from northern Arizona, as an educated Mexican who acted as correspondent for illiterate laborers expressed it, "very much of what they don't spend" is thus sent home. The postmistress at Flagstaff, Ariz., said that making out postal orders for Mexicans formed a considerable part of the work of the office. Some officials, though remarking that the total sum was small, noted it as a new item or a growing item in their post-office transactions. The post-office seems to be used by Mexicans for money transfers the more

frequently the greater their distance from the border. Those near the frontier, intending to return to Mexico themselves shortly, probably hold their money to carry home in person. A labor agent, dealing with Mexicans on the frontier and speaking Spanish fluently, said that the returning immigrants often had $200 gold in their possession, which is a fortune for a workingman in central Mexico. The editor of a Spanish paper in El Paso, himself a former Mexican official, said that many Mexicans returned, especially from the mining country, with this sum. They either spend it in ostentatious display among their neighbors when they get home and return to the United States penniless the following season, or else buy land and stock. The few thrifty ones probably accumulate enough after a few trips to the north to place themselves above the harder and poorer paid kinds of labor in Mexico. Two men of this character were met at Zacatecas; one had a stall in the market.

People familiar with both races say the Mexicans are thriftier than the Negroes. Some of the Pueblo Indian laborers in the Southwest are said to be savers, and this may be an incipient trait in the Indian stock of the Mexican peon. But many employers in the Southwest and in Mexico say that whisky, gambling, and fine clothes absorb most of the Mexican's surplus earnings. Love of display is a very common trait among them and leads to some desirable results, such as the improvement of the homes among New Mexicans, and probably also among the immigrants. But their lavish expenditure seems to be due partly to actual lack of foresight, to forgetfulness, when they have money, that they will ever again be without it. For instance, when the beet harvesters return to El Paso from Colorado, in the fall, they usually have plenty of money, yet not over 30 per cent of the laborers—by actual count kept at one mill—will take the trouble to form parties of ten, and thus secure a party railway rate to the frontier, which would save each laborer several dollars. This is not due to ignorance—for in the particular instance mentioned the mill manager took special trouble to inform them that they could save this money—but apparently to a desire to show off by traveling independently.

Thrift is an important element in the efficiency of labor; for where it is present the laborer usually works more regularly, dissipates less, and is constantly urgent for higher wages. On the other hand, the thriftless laborer is a good man for emergencies—a short job pleases him as well as a long one—and he will work cheap. If the thrift of the Mexicans increases with experience in the United States, though there is not much reason to expect this in any immediately observable degree, they will lose some of the peculiar qualities that make them desirable to employers at present, but at the same time acquire others that will add to their value in

a different direction. In the comparisons made by employers and foremen of Mexican with other immigrant labor, the peculiar serviceability of each in a different way was sometimes lost sight of, and the Mexican was judged by the European or Oriental standard or vice versa. This consideration should qualify the following observations:

Different employers in the beet fields, in comparing Mexicans with Japanese, said: "Japanese want better pay, but are quicker and so are as cheap as Mexicans. They get out earlier in the morning." "Our farmers will engage good Mexicans for the following year. They are about equal as workers to Russians and Japanese, but not so intelligent and thrifty. Different nationalities don't work together. Russians and Japanese will observe their contracts better than Mexicans. Mexicans are the best spenders. Russians are desirable savers, because they save to buy farms. The Japanese are bad savers, because they save money to send away." "The Japanese push up wages." (Given as an unfavorable comparison with Mexicans.)

In other employments Mexicans and Japanese were compared as follows: "Old Mexicans are better laborers than Japanese for a large employer because they do not go in gangs, under a head man or agent like the Japanese. [However, in the beet fields they work under "patrones" of their own nationality.] Every Japanese gang is a trade union; they come and quit together. Among the Mexicans one is as good as another, and they will split up and go off singly to different jobs, but don't all quit at once." These observations were repeated in substance by other employers. "Mexicans are cheaper, and in many cases just as good man for man. Japanese now demand at least $2 a day, about the same as a white man, and they are getting $2.25 a day at the tunnel." (This was near Trinidad, Colo.) "We prefer to work Mexicans. Mexicans will work with anybody but Japanese. They hate the Japs. We had a mixed gang recently on a stone crusher, when we were very short of labor, the Mexicans feeding and the Japanese in front of the machine. The Mexicans hustled the Japs so hard that they drove them off the job and we had to substitute Mexicans."

Reference has already been made to the fact that for railroad work Mexicans are preferred in many places to Greeks, and even to Italians. The following are memoranda of conversations with employers and foremen familiar with workers of these nationalties: "On railways Mexicans are better than Greeks and Italians, and next to the American 'hobo.'" "New Mexicans are better laborers than Italians or Greeks." "'Cholos' are generally preferred to Greeks or Japanese, and some prefer them to whites." "Railways prefer Mexicans to Japanese and Europeans because they don't combine." "Mexicans are rapidly displacing Greeks and Japanese in railway

work in California." "While the Southern Pacific Railway has Mexicans generally on the sections, near El Paso, where there are some dangerous cuts, it employs Italians." "Mexicans do more work per man [on railways] than Greeks and Italians. They are more willing, and if one is discharged the others will not quit."

A railroad manager has been previously quoted as saying that for emergency work Negroes were better than Mexicans, but that for plodding work the latter were to be preferred. Mexicans are considered better cotton pickers, because they will work the season out, while Negroes stop in the midst of a crop to spend their money. Another employer said: "Negroes are better physically, but less diligent, so Mexicans accomplish as much as they." In southern Texas Mexican labor is everywhere preferred to Negro labor, and is supplanting it upon public works in many places, including some of the larger cities along the Gulf coast and in central Texas. An asphalt contractor in Los Angeles said: "'Cholos' are better workers than Japanese, Chinese, or Negroes."

The comparison with the Indian is generally unfavorable to the Mexican. In the beet country the Indian is considered cheaper and more reliable, if not otherwise better labor. An employer said: "Indian boys from 14 to 20 years old, such as we have had here, will do as much as any laborers, Mexican, Russian, or Japanese." A foreman in Arizona, whose statement could not be verified, said: "The Santa Fe paid Navajo Indians $2 a day when it was paying 'cholos' $1.25, because Indians did nearly double the work." At the Gallup (N. Mex.) coal mines it was said: "Navajos are better than Mexican immigrants, and the latter are about as good as the Greeks and Japanese." The Yaqui Indians also are considered good workers. The governor of Arizona said: "The best labor we get from Mexico is the Yaqui Indians. They are more regular and industrious than the other immigrants from that country. They come up here, fraternize with the Mexicans, and then buy arms and go back home to shoot Mexicans." A mine manager in Mexico said: "Mexican labor in Mexico is not as good as Mexican labor in the United States. The best labor we have here (in Sonora) is the Yaqui Indians."

The general relation of Old Mexican to New Mexican or American-born labor of Mexican descent is thus summarized by those familiar with both: "Old Mexicans are increasing (in the Colorado beet fields) relatively to New Mexicans." "From 1900 till 1905 New Mexicans were the chief beet-field workers. Since 1905 Old Mexicans have been supplanting them." "New Mexicans are not employed so much as formerly, because they can get work at home." "When they can make them understand (i. e., speak Spanish or have an interpreter), farmers take Old Mexicans in preference to New Mexicans. The latter are pretty smart and lazy." "The New Mexi-

cans are at the stage where 'a little learning is a dangerous thing.'" "I have nothing to do with New Mexicans, because they are too smart for me and too vicious." "Texas Mexicans, whom I sometimes employed for ranch (farm) work in Mexico, were better than the natives, because they were more intelligent and knew how to use tools and implements." "New Mexicans make at least double as good coal miners as Old Mexicans." "Section foremen around here prefer New Mexicans to Old Mexicans, because the latter are so slow to understand." "New Mexicans are better than Old Mexicans for lumber yard work, because they are more intelligent." "New Mexicans are better yard men and lumber pilers than white men."

All of these comparisons are understood to apply only to unskilled or semiskilled labor. In any higher class of employment the European would in all cases be preferred.

HOME LIFE AND STANDARD OF LIVING.

The wants of the Mexican peon are hardly more complex than those of the original Indian from whom he is descended. An adobe hut with an earth floor, or even a shelter of branches against the wind, a few pieces of pottery, a serape or a sheepskin to lie on at night and to keep out the keener blasts by day, a modicum of cotton clothing, sandals, and a cheap straw sombrero are a sufficient domestic equipment. Corn, beans, and chilis are the staples of his coarse and simple diet. Equally cheap pulque or its more potent and dangerous distillation, mescal, supplies the stimulant demanded by the crudeness of his food, and card playing affords the diversion needed to break the monotony of his life.

In New Mexico one can observe a more advanced stage in the transformation from this simple and unprogressive condition than is to be seen as yet in Mexico itself. For the same influences are at work upon the Pueblo-Aztec races in both republics, though they have come a little earlier in the north. Thirty years ago the New Mexican villager had no use for money. There was not even an iron hinge in his hut. His pottery was fashioned by his own hands, as was the rude plow with which he scratched a bit of valley land. Clothing was often woven by the family from the wool of his own flocks. Old settlers remember when jury fees were almost the only money countrymen ever saw.

Then came the railroad, along which circulated dollars, as well as other commodities new to the country. The peasant felt the pressure of novel needs about the time he found a market for his labor. Gradually his standard of living rose. Now, except in remote localities, the adobe hut, to which the American-born Mexican wisely clings, usually contains an iron bed, frequently a good cooking range, and not

unusually other furniture. His windows are glazed, cheap prints adorn the walls, and a white spread sets forth the importance of the bed. These adobe dwellings are usually neat and clean, with an orderliness not always to be found in the homes of immigrant laborers from Europe.

The New Mexican no longer is village shy, averse to leaving the neighborhood where he was born and where he can always find shelter and food among his friends. He makes seasonal migrations to distant parts of the west in search of work, often leaving his family behind him to attend to the crop in his absence. A Las Vegas (N. Mex.) merchant received answers to an advertisement in a local Spanish paper from Texas, Arizona, California, Wyoming, and Colorado, so widely had the resident Mexicans scattered to find employment upon the ranches and the railroads. One little village had 70 men absent, mostly in Utah as sheep herders. As a rule the hamlets in the irrigated bottoms do not afford work for wages, so this migration of the Spanish-speaking people within the United States is a migration for money—not the nomadic restlessness of an old Indian stock, but a definite seeking after better economic conditions—after the means to supply new needs.

Although the women stay at home and do not themselves become earners, they appear to be the spenders, or the ones for whom money is first and chiefly spent. A Mexican laborer will dress his wife and children expensively while he wears rags himself. Social emulation or some kindred sentiment seems to account for the slow but steady improvement in the New Mexican home. In fact, showy furniture frequently stands as a symbol of means rather than of use. A well draped bed will occupy a prominent place in an apartment where the family sleeps on the floor. And these new standards of style and ostensible comfort are set by the women rather than by the men.

The immigrant from Old Mexico is passing along the same road as his brother north of the line, only he is a little behind. He dons American working clothes when he crosses the border; and if he goes into a boarding camp becomes accustomed to a dietary scale far above that to which he was accustomed at home. It is doubtful if the fresh-meat-eating laborer ever returns willingly to a vegetable diet. Some Mexicans in Texas seem to appreciate the United States chiefly as a place where there is more to eat than in Mexico. In migrating to the United States the Mexican loosens the home tie more than does the New Mexican in his migrations; for he goes to a greater distance and to a different country. Therefore he breaks away more completely from the system of communal dependence common to the Spanish-speaking peasantry of both countries, where the lazy man and the man out of work live off their relatives and neighbors, so that the sense of individual economic responsibility is never developed. The com-

munal standard of living is apt to be low, because emulative influences are absent. In the United States, for instance, the standard of living constantly rises, partly because every man wants to excel or at least equal his neighbor in home surroundings. And other things being the same, the standard of living rises most rapidly where there is the most social contact, as in towns and in cities, provided each family unit is upon an independent basis. But where the man who increases his family expenditure, at once, by this evidence of prosperity, becomes the prey of all his poorer relatives and connections, and even neighbors, who swarm in and eat up his surplus substance, obviously there can be little progress, though there is a comfortable condition of equality among all members of the community. This was the condition of the Mexican villagers. Custom made the more industrious and efficient the victims of the lazy and inefficient. There was no incentive to accumulate. Society was reduced to a subsistence basis.

With emigration the communal unit is broken up, and there is an opportunity to accumulate and enjoy the fruit of this accumulation. The conditions under which the Mexican laborer in the United States works usually prevent his having a home; so he does not buy furniture. But he spends liberally for clothing, and if his family accompanies him, provides well for his wife and children. He thus accustoms himself to things he has not heretofore enjoyed, and carries the taste for these things back to Mexico. New demands for American manufactures grow up in Mexico where the returned emigrant has settled, and trade follows in the wake of retreating labor.

It is the general opinion that Mexican immigrants eat better and more varied food in the United States than at home, but their diet in the United States is so different under different conditions that a safe conclusion can not be drawn from observing isolated cases. A person who had lived among Mexicans in Mexico and in Colorado said: "Both immigrants and American-born Mexicans eat chilis and beans and jerk their meat. But in Old Mexico people have a greater variety of food, because it is so easily procured." This applies especially to fruits and to vegetables, which are fairly abundant and varied, though of poor quality, at least in the markets of the larger provincial towns of Mexico. At a Colorado coal mine store a typical bill of a New Mexican was 4 sacks of flour, Mexican beans, canned goods (tomatoes, corn, and peas), a 15-pound bucket of jelly, 20 pounds of lard, chilis, corn meal, and about $3 worth of fresh boiling beef and bacon. This represents about the best dietary scale of Spanish-speaking laborers, where they board themselves. Some items are omitted or were obtained elsewhere. Compared with this is the following weekly ration of a "family"(a) on a plantation in the extreme southern portion of Mexico, where wages are high for

[a] A man, wife, and children too young to work.

the Republic and labor scarce: 1½ kilos (3.3 pounds) beans, 1 kilo (2.2 pounds) rice, 600 grams (1.3 pounds) coffee, ½ kilo (1.1 pounds) salt, 1 kilo (2.2 pounds) brown sugar, 3 kilos (6.6 pounds) meat, one-half bottle lard, one-half bottle kerosene. At Flagstaff, Ariz., a Mexican said that men boarding themselves paid $4 or $5 a month for a house, usually occupied by two or more, and bought flour, beans, sugar, and coffee, but no meat and very little of other provisions. At a railway store in California immigrant Mexicans were buying bacon, ham, flour, beans, and some canned goods. Where they are boarded, as remarked elsewhere, they eat a great deal of fresh meat. One contractor said of his Old Mexicans: "They gorge themselves on meat."

A merchant dealing with both New Mexicans and immigrant Mexicans said: "Mexicans born in this country are usually neat about their homes and buy things to make them comfortable. They will own a $35 bed, though they sleep out of doors in summer. I sell on an average one good kitchen range a month to Mexicans in this community of some 500 people. They have crayon enlargements in their houses. They don't use much table linen; they use oilcloth. They like gaudily colored table covers and pottery ornaments." Old Mexicans buy a cheaper quality of goods and in smaller quantities than New Mexicans; and all Mexicans, though better buyers, use cheaper articles than Italians, and buy them with less discrimination. Italians will pay 40 cents a pound for Edam cheese, and correspondingly higher prices for the best imported olive oil and macaroni, if the articles are really as represented, but Mexicans buy better clothing, especially for their women and children. Young Americans of Mexican descent buy tailor-made clothing, but older New Mexicans and immigrants will seldom pay more than $10 for a ready-made suit. The wives of Mexican miners and laborers will buy more expensive hats and shoes than American women of a much better position in life. Sewing machines have found their way into Mexican homes throughout the Southwest. The returning immigrant often invests a considerable share of his savings in attire for himself and family before reaching home.

EMIGRATION AND LABOR EFFICIENCY.

The new sense of self-dependence created by migration is said to be both a moral and an industrial stimulus to the Mexican, and does not leave him even when he returns to his own country. Several employers in Mexico expressed, independently of each other, the opinion that the laborer who had been to the United States was a better worker than the one who had never left home. Some thought that the old-time peon, who had never left his village, was more tractable and could be driven more; but that the laborer educated by

travel across the border had more initiative and intelligence, and more need for money, so that his real efficiency was higher, though his habits were more irregular. The testimony of employers who had had an opportunity to observe labor in both countries, was unanimous that Mexicans worked better in the United States than in Mexico; that they learned to direct their work more intelligently, worked more days a month, and worked with more vigor. This was attributed partly to American superintendence, partly to higher wages and better food, and partly to the fact that the Mexican came to the United States with the definite object of saving money to carry back home, and gave his attention to that one thing.

One railway manager qualified his opinion of the influence of emigration upon the labor efficiency of Mexicans as follows: "Their efficiency is not increased by higher wages. They do not do so much as five years ago. But those who have been in the United States are in some respects cheaper, because they need less supervision." Another employer, with more men in his service, summed up the matter by saying of laborers who had come back to Mexico to work, after being in the United States: "We get more service for more wages."

The general educational effect of travel upon the Mexican peons is probably wholesome. They learn to do new kinds of work, under new conditions. They see different ways of living and acquire new wants. They begin to have a vague ambition for social and economic betterment. It is so usual in Mexico to speak of the Indian laborer as absolutely without ambition, that to attribute to him this quality marks a man in common opinion as a theorist. But the very movement of this labor northward is a proof of ambition. These workers are not forced from their homes—they leave against opposition of their old employers, those whom they have been taught to respect and obey. Sometimes they leave against the will of the priest as well as of the "patron;" for there is often solidarity of interest between the two in rural parishes. The attraction that overcomes this opposition is therefore a strong one—and it is none other than the motive that sets the European immigrant upon his way across the sea—to earn more money and to live better. Some educated Mexicans say that the laborers of their country are beginning to be restless under the old caste inferiority, to which they have submitted from before the Conquest; that doctrines of equality, but half comprehended, are awakening new ideas among the peasantry, and that the movement among them to the north is partly a groping for an opportunity to rise out of their hereditary condition. A mere grain of truth may be at the bottom of this opinion, but it is mostly the idealism of educated social optimists, read into the extremely simple and practical mind of the Indian, who aspires mostly for very concrete things. The peon immigrant has an ambition; but it is limited to the few dollars which he

can carry back to his family and often dissipate in gorgeous expenditure. Still, this ambition is better than none at all; and it results in labor, which is discipline, and in saving, which is a still higher and less familiar discipline to these people. Ultimately it brings about a higher standard of living, which is the basis for social aspirations, such as overhopeful Mexicans already feign to discover among their peon classes.

This primary desire for money, even if the money is to be spent unwisely, makes the Mexican a better worker. His efficiency as a laborer is rising slowly to the demands of the gold-paying employer in the United States. As he acquires more varied experience, his initiative and adaptability increase. When it is considered that he is the product of unnumbered generations of training in a single occupation—in the simplest of all labor, primitive and unprogressive agriculture—it is not to be expected that he should respond readily to all the varied demands of modern industry. The important point is that he improves, "catches on," as the foremen say.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF MEXICANS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Spanish-speaking population of the United States has not increased rapidly, and in localities where it is brought into close competition with other races appears to be decreasing. But the population of Mexico has more than doubled within one hundred years, without appreciable immigration. The number of inhabitants in the Republic at present probably exceeds 15,000,000. The race has not been as prolific in Mexico as either the white or the black race in the United States. This has probably been due not so much to a lower birth rate as to a higher death rate, caused by poorer sanitary conditions and less nourishing food. Mexicans are fatalists in case of epidemics, exposing themselves to contagion without regard to consequences. They are said to be susceptible to tuberculosis. While they do not impress one as able to resist the stress of modern urban life, they literally swarm in the crowded, insanitary courts of the City of Mexico.

Physicians familiar with Mexican immigrants in the United States usually speak of them as poorly nourished, with less vigor and resistance to disease than Europeans, Negroes, or Americans. A mine physician said: "Mexicans in this country have fairly large families, but the population resident here increases but slowly, if at all, on account of the low resistance powers of the race." Parasitic anæmia, or the "hook worm," is not the cause of this, apparently, since the disease is unknown in many parts of Mexico and not common among the immigrants. There are a few cases in coal mines near the border, all popularly supposed to be brought from a single mining district of Mexico, and to be due to the habit of earth-eating said to prevail

in that locality. Speaking of Mexican communities in Colorado, a person familiar with them said: "New Mexicans have large families, but seem to be dying out; and the Mexican population of Pueblo and Trinidad appears to be decreasing, and would decrease more were it not for immigration from the south." There are no statistics to show whether or not this surmise is correct. The American population of these western towns and cities is growing so rapidly, and the country is filling up so fast with European immigrants, that the so-called "Mexican" population, while really growing, may by contrast appear to be lessening; also, the New Mexicans are more widely distributed than formerly, entering new occupations and old occupations in a country that was entirely without settlers a few years ago. Therefore a local decrease might accompany a general increase throughout the State, or in neighboring States. At one place in Colorado an election official said that the poll books showed a decreasing Mexican population. But such evidence has no value for general purposes. In Los Angeles immigrant Mexicans are said to be more robust than natives of Mexican descent, and to be displacing them. The impression of Americans here and in the Territories accords with the opinions given from Colorado, that the American-born Mexicans are a decadent race, yielding before the physically more vigorous immigrants from Europe and the East. One cause given for the decline of the New Mexican population is inbreeding—intermarriage for generations among the few families of a village, said to result in stunting and deformities and in a general decrease of virility.

Los Angeles has probably the largest urban colony of immigrant Mexicans in the United States. The total Spanish-speaking population of the city is said not to be increasing, but natives are being supplanted by immigrants, so that in a district in the old Spanish town, where there are still many hundreds of Mexicans, a social settlement worker knew of but four families that were born in this country. These people live in courts and in alleys, into which open one-story huts having one or two rooms, built of wood or brick and adobe, weatherproof, but ill-lighted, unclean, unwholesome, and hardly to be tolerated by the poorest except in the sunny and warm California climate. Not long ago a physician found 23 Mexicans sleeping in one small room in this district, and another was added to the number before he left. These courts harbor not only Mexicans, but Negroes and Slavs as well. Families of different race and nationality occupy adjoining tenements. There is nothing to distinguish the house of one from the other, except that a box of flowers occasionally is seen in front of the Mexican quarters. Single-room huts rent for $3 a month, and this rate per room is charged for larger tenements. On account of a recent tenement house ordinance in Los

Angeles the condition of these courts had improved somewhat when they were visited, in the autumn of 1907. Outside water taps and closets—apparently serving an entire court—with sewer connection had been installed.

Austin and San Antonio, Tex., have large colonies of immigrant Mexicans, which are undoubtedly growing rapidly, and not, like that of Los Angeles, about stationary in total population. But housing conditions are better, partly because land values are lower and there is less necessity for crowding.

Los Angeles is a native American city, settled mostly by people from the Eastern States. Of a total public school enrollment of 42,260 but 2,046 are foreign-born. Of these foreign-born children, 938 are natives of Mexico. The last census statistics are already too old to show the relative numbers of Mexicans and other foreigners in the city, but these figures are thought by the school authorities to indicate that the school attendance of Mexicans is relatively as large as that of other nationalities.

The Mexicans of San Antonio show an interest in the public schools and the attendance is rapidly increasing. In fact the authorities find it difficult to provide adequate accommodations in the Mexican quarter of the city. In one district, where seven-eighths of the enrollment is Mexican, within five years an eight-room building has been increased to sixteen rooms and a seven-room building built in a different part of the district. Parents show great interest in the schools and a Mexican merchant presented a bell to one of the buildings at the time of its completion. There is usually a Mexican member—an American-born citizen of Mexican descent—on the school board to represent the Spanish-speaking people of the city. All instruction is in English and the children are taught to salute the flag. American parents send their children to the same schools with Mexican children. The attitude of the people of the city toward Mexican children in the schools was thus explicitly described by an educational officer: "The citizens of San Antonio want the Mexican children to have the same advantages as their own in the public schools for four reasons: (1) From humanitarian considerations they want to raise the Mexican population and give it a better chance in life; (2) from political considerations they want to satisfy the Mexican voters; (3) many business men see a practical advantage in having their children—more especially boys—associate with Mexican children in school and learn their character, because they will have to deal with them in after life; (4) we all want to keep the Mexican population contented, so more Mexican labor will immigrate to this country." In this city the testimony was that Mexican children were well behaved in school, and that they were bright in the primary grades and in the manual training departments, but that they entered later

and left earlier than American children. It was pointed out that the adult Mexican population of Texas and of the Territories had never enjoyed public school advantages, and so the present generation of children grows up in ignorant homes. But this will not be true of the next generation.

In Los Angeles few Mexican pupils remain longer than through the second grade, which gives them the mere elements of reading and writing; but it takes them longer than American children to advance this far, because they have to learn English. When placed in an ungraded room as an experiment some Mexican children made more progress. Of course there are exceptional cases where children pass beyond the primary grades; and three Mexicans of a better class were attending the polytechnic high school. The children are reported to be tractable and to like going to school. They give no trouble, and their only difficulty comes from the aggressions of a rougher class of white pupils. The girls are said to be moral—better safeguarded either by principle or by home discipline than the lower class of white girls. Mexican children are rather studious by nature, but those in Los Angeles are hampered by poor home surroundings. Partly from lack of home conveniences for washing, the children are apt to come to school dirty. After school baths were installed in one building, there was much improvement in this respect. But Mexicans are prejudiced against water, believing that washing causes fever. After their children have been vaccinated Mexican parents will keep them away from water for weeks, though the parents have superstitious faith in the vaccination itself, as a sort of mystic rite. But it is easier for school authorities to enforce some sort of home hygiene for these pupils, because the Mexicans have much respect for authority and make an attempt to follow official directions.

Irregular attendance retards the progress of Mexican pupils. Boys are sent on errands, and usually have to provide the family with fuel, which they pick up in the streets and around new buildings. Children of both sexes are often absent on feast days and on holy days. Though children are sent to church on these occasions, Mexican parents usually patronize public rather than parochial schools. This does not seem to be from motives of economy; for they make sacrifices to provide their children with text-books, and will not appeal to the authorities for free books, though these can be obtained where parents are themselves unable to provide them. In this matter Mexicans are in strong contrast with Italians, who try to get text-books from the school board after they are well-to-do and taxpayers on city property. A Mexican family almost in distress prefers not to make this appeal, but manages in some way to obtain money for necessary school expenses.

Mexicans excel in design and in the manual arts. At the College Settlement, a social betterment center in a quarter of Los Angeles having many Mexican immigrants, children of that nationality show special skill in tile modeling and in carving blocks of original design for printing patterns on cloth. Teachers say their work is equal to or better than that of pupils in the technical high school.

Mexican boys are not fond of athletic sports, and as a race these people are not aggressive. At a rummage sale the Mexicans stood back while Italians and other Europeans crowded forward and got all the good bargains. Likewise, when a colony of Italians settles in a quarter formerly occupied by Mexicans, the latter quietly move out to a less crowded locality. Sometimes they buy cheap suburban lots on installments, and move their shacks to these places, or buy second-hand building materials where old tenements—frequently condemned—are being torn down, from which they erect rude shelters for their families. In this, as in other ways, the Mexican shows the retiring traits of the Indian and the countryman, even after several years' experience with city life.

Social workers with experience among different nationalities, in Los Angeles and elsewhere, think that there is less illiteracy among the Mexican immigrants than among the Slavs. Superficial observers commonly assume that a knowledge of reading and of writing is as rare among the former as a knowledge of English. This is not entirely true. Several pay rolls of unskilled Mexican laborers were seen, which indicated that from one-half to three-fourths of these workers could at least sign their names. A Spanish-speaking American labor agent in El Paso estimated that 10 per cent of the immigrants could read and write. One old laborer in Los Angeles, who was signing a pay roll, said his children had taught him to write, adding in Spanish: "I'll never go back to Old Mexico, because I have five children in the public school." Wherever there are large Mexican labor camps postmasters report that a large number of letters are sent to Mexico. Though many of these are written by some local "patron," or headman, yet this is by no means always the case. In several instances immigrants passing through El Paso showed letters from a brother or other relative in the United States. A number of Mexican men attend night school in Los Angeles.

The Mexicans are sympathetic—generous not only to their own people, but to those of another nationality in time of trouble. For this reason they seldom become dependent upon public charity. Americans in parts of the country where Mexicans are numerous frequently observed: "There are no Mexican tramps." By this it is not meant that there are not many Mexican laborers traveling on foot from place to place, but these laborers are so in fact as well as name, and seldom apply for assistance except among their own people. At

the time of the San Francisco earthquake, according to settlement workers in Los Angeles, when there was a call for help in making clothing and furnishing other supplies, the Mexican mothers turned out, and in their small way gave more assistance than any other foreigners.

The professional criminal element among Mexicans in the United States appears to be small, but there is a considerable number of occasional criminals. Most arrests are caused by cheap whisky or mescal. The Mexican is not often a sot, but many Mexicans are inclined to short, sharp, periodic sprees. Along the frontier resides a number of parasitic Mexicans, who live off the vices of their more industrious countrymen and the lower class of Americans. This is a disagreeable and at times a dangerous element. Gambling is its main profession. There are so-called "American" towns within the frontier district where public opinion is as decidedly against Mexican immigration as it is against Negro immigration in some white sections of the South. Where there is this opposition to the Mexican, it is usually to the Mexican who becomes a resident rather than to the transient laborer. And it is this resident class that provides most of the criminals and semicriminals.

In 1906 the penal and charitable institutions of Arizona and of New Mexico, not counting county institutions, contained 773 American citizens, 382 Mexican citizens, and 456 persons of other foreign nationalities, while the nationalities of 19 were unknown. In county jails visited a large per cent of the inmates were obviously of Mexican blood, on whichever side the border they might have been born. But in these localities the same predominance of Mexican blood was also obvious outside the jail.

SENTIMENT AND RACE PREJUDICE.

Organized labor, and white workers in general, do not appear to be opposed to Mexicans in the same way that they are to Orientals. There are two main reasons for this; the Mexican immigrant does not compete in occupations which the white worker greatly cares to enter, and he is regarded as something of an American, with more moral right in this country than the Asiatic. One labor editor said: "The Mexicans don't trouble us much, and are not likely to do so unless we have bad times. Then it may be a bad thing to have the country filled up with cheap labor. They can't do white man's work. Besides they were born in this country, or pretty nearly in this country, and have more right to be here than these Japanese and Italians and Greeks." One candid American mechanic said: "They will never pay a Mexican what he's really worth compared with a white man. I know a Mexican that's the best blacksmith I ever knew. He has made some of the best tools I ever used. But they pay him $1.50 a

day as a helper, working under an American blacksmith who gets $7 a day." Another workingman said: "The Mexican is all right in his place, and he's not so likely to get out of his place as a Japanese or a Negro." The fact that the Mexican is not socially or industrially ambitious, like European and Asiatic immigrants, counts very much in his favor with white workers.

The race sentiment of Americans toward Mexicans is, like most race sentiment, peculiar and illogical. There is nothing of that stern race consciousness that marks the attitude of the white man in the South toward the Negro. There is more of the tolerance with which Americans have traditionally regarded the Indians. Yet a Mexican can fraternize with Negroes and not lose caste, as would a white man. Negro foremen are employed in Mexican coal mines, directing gangs of Mexican miners. The American Negro considers himself above the Mexican, and yet the latter receives more social recognition from the white man. Perhaps the existence of an upper class in Mexico, distinct from the laboring class and equal socially to Americans, gives even the laborer a better standing in this country. Mexican immigrants ride in white cars in Texas, and might eat at the same table with Americans. Practically there is little social intermingling. Intermarriage is rare, and when it occurs seems to be a subject for apology. This is true even of Europeans. A person familiar with a large mining district, where hundreds of Italians and Mexicans were employed, knew of but a single case where an Italian had married a Mexican. The Mexican does not put himself forward, or seek white society. He observes his own canons of reserve and dignity, which are never offensive.

In Colorado an American said: "There is less race prejudice against an Indian than against a Mexican, and less against a Mexican than against a Negro." This about expresses the situation in the West; but in Texas, where people are more familiar with Mexicans, and a larger proportion of them are residents of the better class, the Mexicans as a body socially far outrank Indians or Negroes. The gradation, from those who associate on terms of equality with Americans to the peon, is so gradual that a race distinction as such hardly exists; and though the preponderant Indian blood of most recent Mexican immigrants can not be dismissed from a consideration of the effect of this immigration, it has not as yet created a race question along our southern frontier.

The economic race contest is not so much between the Mexican and the Negro or the American as between the Mexican and the other nationalities mentioned previously—Italians, Greeks, and Japanese. Japanese compete with Negroes on the Pacific coast in what are called "easy jobs," such as hotel waiters and porters, bootblacks, and servants of different kinds. Mexicans have never entered these

occupations, though a few are employed as coachmen. In Mexico it has sometimes been necessary to place Chinese laborers together in a mine entirely separate from the Mexicans.

The attitude of Americans of Mexican descent toward immigrants from Mexico seems to be friendly, except where there is direct competition between the two. In Colorado the former regard the latter as interlopers, though they are not actively hostile to them. New Mexicans complain that the immigrants can work cheaper, because they have no families with them. The New Mexican is different from the Old Mexican, in that he sometimes objects to working with Negroes. Another evidence of nascent social consciousness is that he considers himself very much above the immigrant, and does not want to be confounded with him in public opinion. This sentiment is observed in parts of New Mexico where labor is so scarce that there is no opposition by the natives to immigration from Mexico on economic grounds. In Texas, where there are labor organizations among resident Mexicans, the latter oppose an inflow of immigrants likely to lower wages; and in some cases they have lodged complaints of alleged violations of the contract labor law.

SOME EFFECTS IN MEXICO.

Incidentally the effects upon Old Mexico of Mexican emigration to the United States have been referred to in treating of the influence of emigration upon the laborer. But there remain to be pointed out some of the economic and social effects felt by that country as a whole.

Labor is scarce in Mexico; that is, not adequate to the demand of the country's expanding industries. In spite of the cry for more labor in the United States in the summer of 1907, Mexican immigrants were being shipped back to the State of Sonora from El Paso at a wage equal to that they would be paid on American railways near the frontier. The Mexican newspapers are filled with discussions of the labor shortage, and contain many dispatches telling of crops unharvested or railways and public works delayed because of the impossibility of securing workers. These reports are from all parts of the country. The authorities in some of the central States at times suspend entirely the right to hire laborers within their boundaries for work in other States. This was done in Querétaro in July, 1907, and in October of the same year a similar provision was revoked in Zacatecas.

Therefore the emigration to the United States, though it withdraws from the labor market but a small fraction of the total supply, may have a decided influence upon wages. Not only does it make the existing shortage more acute, but the influence of returning emigrants is to educate local labor to higher wage demands. An official of a large employing corporation in Mexico, himself an American, said: "The

effect of emigration will finally be to make our wages as high as those in the north. To retain labor so far as we can in the southern portion of the Republic we and other employers of labor have had to advance wages considerably."

This rise in wages exceeds in ratio, to the rate previously paid, the rise of wages in the United States. The increase is not to be attributed solely to emigration. It is perhaps as largely due to mining development, to railway building, and to other local demands for workers. But the movement of labor northward is more dramatic and obvious than its silent absorption by domestic industries, and is therefore given relatively more importance in common opinion.

Within a few years railways have raised the rate of pay for unskilled labor from 50 cents to 62½ cents (Mexican) in the vicinities of the City of Mexico, Guadalajara, and Aguas Calientes. These are the cheap labor districts of the Republic. A railroad contractor, who was employing several thousand men on construction work on the west coast, said that he was paying common labor as high as $1.25 (Mexican) a day, where he had been paying 50 cents (Mexican) five years ago. This contractor has imported Asiatics, but prefers Mexicans when they can be obtained.

Wages are much lower away from the railways, and even upon railways not affording direct connection with the north. While skilled miners earn $1.50 (Mexican) a day, according to their employers, around Zacetecas, they are paid but 75 cents (Mexican) a day 60 miles distant in the interior. As recently as 1906, upon the east coast north of Tampico, in country not yet connected with Monterey and Laredo, laborers employed in railway construction were paid but 40 and 50 cents (20 and 25 cents United States currency) a day. This was about the plantation rate. Immigrants at El Paso often reported that their wages on the hacienda where they had been employed were "dos reales" (equivalent to 12½ cents in American money) a day, and this sum was often received in supplies. Five years ago farm laborers in the vicinity of Monterey, within a few hours' ride from the Texas border, were paid a conventional rate of 40 cents (silver) a day. In 1907, even as far south as Aguas Calientes, at least one large estate owner was reported to be paying 60 cents (silver) a day for farm hands. This wage was probably exceptional, since it was paid by an unusually progressive proprietor, who had grappled with the problem of labor scarcity in an intelligent way and was experimenting with steam plows and other modern agricultural implements. As a rule farm wages rise more slowly than those of unskilled labor in other industries, and this rule applies with the more force in Mexico on account of peonage and the patriarchal organization of agriculture. In fact, the "hacendados" are reported to make little effort to keep their labor in face of higher wages elsewhere,

except by preventing open recruiting in their vicinity. Wages are so much a matter of custom in Mexico that to change them is like amending the constitution in another country. So cases are cited where large landowners, formerly rated very wealthy and accustomed to a liberal scale of living, are on the verge of bankruptcy because the labor has drifted away, rendering their estates unproductive. Entire villages have migrated to other parts of Mexico, where employment has been found in the mines or on the railways, or have gone to the United States. This conventional wage rate is uneconomic and unjust to the more industrious workers. An American agricultural expert, who was employed to manage a large "hacienda" in Mexico during the introduction of citrus fruits as a main crop, said that when he first went on the place every workman was credited with 40 cents (20 cents United States currency) a day, without regard for his efficiency and industry. Some men were good workers, others simply loafed and talked, but each received the same pay at the end of the month. When the new manager began to discriminate in wages and discharge the loafers, it was at first considered a cruel and unjust innovation, but ultimately the men who really cared to work saw the advantage of the new system, and much more was accomplished by a few well-paid laborers than had formerly been accomplished by many half-paid "peones."

Ultimately, perhaps, labor scarcity will force most large proprietors to adopt the same system. Many intelligent Mexicans consider that before this happens the large estates will be broken up and the peon become a true peasant proprietor. This is regarded by many liberal-minded people as a most desirable outcome of present conditions, and there are some who welcome the emigration to the United States for this reason.

The rise of wages and lack of labor in Mexico are being met by other measures in which the United States is not unconcerned. Large employers, especially mining companies and railways—but also planters, more particularly in the tropical portions of the Republic—are importing many thousand Chinese and Japanese. There is no effective political opposition to this immigration, and very little criticism of the policy of importing alien labor of another race upon civic or upon social grounds. If the Indian has any sentiment with regard to the question it is unexpressed. Wages are traditionally low in Mexico, and in the face of a large immigration they would probably resume their former level, thus checking the inflow of foreign labor. Other things being equal, native labor is preferred to Asiatic. At the rubber growers' convention in Mexico, in October, 1907, the discussion brought out clearly that Mexican labor was better than Japanese in this industry. After several years' experience, native mining labor is given the preference to imported. A large railway contractor expressed the same preference after

equally extensive experience. All this means, in a word, that Mexican labor is cheaper than Asiatic when it can be obtained. Meantime, if the economic status of the native laborer improves, there will probably come an increase in his intelligence and in his political force, and with it, awakened opposition and power to resist the influx of Orientals.

No very definite effects of their experience in the United States, upon the social ideals of the laborers returning to Mexico, is as yet reported. There are some labor organizations in the latter country, but mostly among a class of workers that does not emigrate. The Government supervises the relations of employers and employees somewhat strictly. During the cotton operatives' strike in 1906, and the more recent mining labor difficulties at Cananea, near the American frontier in northern Sonora, the authorities intervened so sternly as to repress disorder and force the men back to work at the old terms. This intervention was partly to prevent an opportunity for disaffected political elements to take advantage of the crisis. But when there was talk of a strike on one of the large railway systems, the authorities, after an investigation, decided that some of the demands of the employees were just and directed that they be granted. The essence of these later difficulties has been the demand of Mexicans that they be paid the same wage as Americans for the same work; and the Government supports this contention when convinced that Mexican labor does render the same service; but as decidedly rejects it when equal efficiency is not shown. The Mexican laborer who emigrates to the United States usually comes from the agricultural classes, ignorant of the labor movement, and his work in this country does not bring him in contact with trade unionism except at the mines, where he finds it either arrayed against him or apathetic to his interests. In any case, no effort has been made by American unionists to organize the Mexicans, or to dispose them favorably toward labor organizations. An exception to this attitude is found when American-born Mexicans are numerous in any trade. At Tuscon, Ariz., the builders' helpers, mostly or entirely Spanish speaking, have a union, and at Laredo, Tex., there is a labor paper published in Spanish, and an active branch of the American Federation of Labor largely composed of Mexican or Mexican-American members. During the coal strike in Colorado in 1903–4, when Mexicans were employed as strike breakers, they would join the union when urged, and remained faithful to the labor cause so long as they were paid strike benefits. A small income without work seems much better to these people than a large income with work. Yet nearly all the Mexicans engaged in this disturbance, either as union men or as strike breakers, were American born.

If labor organization in Mexico is influenced by returning emigrants to the United States it seems likely that the emigrants will have

received their new ideas indirectly through these Spanish-speaking unions of workers on the American side of the border rather than directly from the organizers and leaders of the labor movement in Mexico.

Among the Latin-American people more than among Americans labor agitation is apt to end in political agitation and, as already suggested, the Government of Mexico, with this fear in view, keeps a close watch over the incipient enterprises of labor reformers. Conditions are not favorable in Mexico to a socialist propaganda. Mexican labor has not yet evolved to that peculiar kind of class consciousness that makes the mind receptive to socialist theories. The masses are ready, perhaps, to adopt any programme handed out to them by a vigorous and ready spoken leader; but they would adopt it on authority, not as a personal conviction, and desert it with perfect unconcern as soon as the leader had fallen.

Therefore, because their contact with American workers is purely one of locality, not of intellectual sympathy, and because they are as yet a people with but rudimentary social experience, the emigrants from Mexico do not carry home with them a burden of new thoughts and ideals likely to revolutionize the intellectual condition of native workers.

In time, of course, if this current of labor continues to flow to and fro between Mexico and the United States social ideas gathered from industrial surroundings in the latter country will begin to permeate the thought of the working classes south of the border. But this process promises at present to be so slow as to be negligible in a study of existing conditions or of those of the immediate future.

In other respects the laborer returns not uninfluenced by his sojourn in another land. His knowledge of ideal things may remain the same, but his knowledge of concrete things has expanded. He has become accustomed to better—at least different—clothing, more varied food, a generally wider material horizon. His consumption has grown. And by his newly acquired wants and his example he is increasing the consuming impulse of the whole Mexican laboring class. It is somewhat to the advantage of Americans that the things he has learned to want are mostly the product of our own country and that the increment to the market is in the demand for American goods. Mexico, too, is benefited by this increased consumption, for it is paid for by additional labor, which develops the country. There is at least a shadow of ground for the contention of some optimistic residents of Mexico that the labor supply of the country is not really lessened by emigration to the United States, because the new needs of the returning laborers make all laborers work the harder. Even if this compensating outcome is not so immediate as these people hold it will probably come ultimately in the greater aggregate laboring power of the nation.

The relation of the Mexican laborer to his employer has been modified by many new conditions, of which the emigration to the north is perhaps the most typical. The workingman is no longer so dependent on his "patron" as formerly. He changes employers more frequently and freely. He expects cash wages and offers a sort of passive resistance to many forms of industrial oppression to which he used to submit without question. A coal mining company employing several thousand men formerly paid monthly, issuing in the interval scrip to the miners, which was accepted at par for goods, but discounted 40 and 50 per cent by speculators for cash. Many of these speculators worked in collusion with higher employees of the company. At this time the men were receiving 55 cents (27½ cents United States currency) per ton for getting out coal. A shrewd Yankee contracted part of the mine for a long period, and began to pay 45 cents (22½ cents United States currency) a ton to his miners, but gave them their earnings in cash every evening. Soon he had several hundred of the best workers of the company, recruited by it at great expense, in his part of the mine; and his success and competition forced the company to adopt the same plan of payment. With cash wages the men bought their supplies on better terms, and in general they were more independent; but the company permitted no competing store upon its property. A rival company went one step further and permitted competing stores to locate in the vicinity of its mines. Now it has abundant labor at the expense of its competitor. As an English mine manager in a different part of the country said: "The Mexicans are learning to dislike to be shepherded."

Not only is the Mexican learning to look upon his relations with his employer as a matter of contract rather than of dependence, and therefore changing employers more freely, but also he is learning to change his occupation. The differentiation in occupations accompanying the industrial development of the country—and made still greater by the wider sphere of employment opened to the Mexican laborer by emigration—is giving the worker greater diversity of training, and thereby making him more intelligent. Managers of mines, of smelters, and of railways in Mexico mentioned the improvement of their labor, due to increased experience and training, within the past few years; and it was generally thought that emigration was an added influence in the same direction. Even some of those who most deplored the temporary loss of labor due to this cause congratulated themselves that these migrating workers returned better qualified for work than they were when they left.

Upon the whole, the balance of advantage or disadvantage to Mexico from this migration of its labor northward is not at once clear. There can be seen certain specific benefits for the individual laborer, and at longer range benefits for the entire laboring class of the coun-

try, from the higher wages and added experience the emigrants get in the United States. Returning emigrants bring back some money with them. On the other hand, the labor shortage in their home country leads to the importation of Asiatics—which might occur in any case—and undoubtedly makes more difficult new industrial undertakings, while it embarrasses old ones. Still the volume of this emigration as yet is not large enough to be of vital importance, even to a thinly populated country like Mexico. Should this labor migration increase, as recent indications promise, it will be a serious matter for that country to consider.

SOME EFFECTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

So long as the Mexican immigration is transient it is not likely to have much influence upon the United States, except as it regulates the labor market in a limited number of occupations and probably within a restricted area; for transient labor is not likely to be largely employed beyond a certain radius from El Paso and the Rio Grande, or to enter lines of employment in which it competes with citizen labor. But the Mexicans are making their homes in the United States in increasing numbers and, being assimilated by the Spanish-speaking population of the Southwest, are forming the civic substratum of our border States. The proportion of the immigrants who ultimately take up a permanent residence north of the border is entirely a matter of estimate. As this immigration has assumed importance since the census of 1900, figures derived from the census reports do not indicate present conditions and tendencies. Nevertheless, the following table gives the statistical background for the subject, so far as one exists:

MEXICAN POPULATION AND PER CENT OF MEXICAN OF TOTAL POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN CERTAIN BORDER STATES AND TERRITORIES, 1880, 1890, AND 1900.

Locality.	1880.		1890.		1900.	
	Mexican-born population.	Per cent of total population.	Mexican-born population.	Per cent of total population.	Mexican-born population.	Per cent of total population.
Arizona	9,330	23.06	11,534	19.35	14,172	11.53
California	8,648	1.00	7,164	.51	8,086	.54
New Mexico	5,173	4.32	4,504	2.93	6,649	3.40
Texas	43,161	2.71	51,559	2.31	71,062	2.33
Border States and Territories	66,312	2.54	74,761	2.04	99,969	2.06
Total United States	68,399	.14	77,853	.12	103,410	.14

Up to 1900 very few Mexicans had emigrated beyond the border States and Territories. For instance, Colorado, which now employs several hundred Old Mexicans transiently, had but 274 residents of that nationality in the last census year. Louisiana had 488. Colorado, however, had 10,222 residents, mostly in the mining counties around Trinidad, who had been born in New Mexico.

The table shows that between 1880 and 1890 the Mexican-born population increased more slowly than the total population; but that during the following decade it increased at a more rapid ratio than the total population, both in the United States as a whole and in all the border districts except Arizona. In 1880 Mexicans comprised 1.01 per cent of the total foreign-born population of the United States; in 1890, 0.9 per cent, and in 1900, 1 per cent, showing the same general tendency of variation as to the total population. Of the more than 5,000 immigrants who passed through El Paso in September, 1907, not one expressed the intention of becoming an American citizen. The only one of several score questioned at the immigration station who had this intention was a skilled mechanic, of quite a different class from the main body of immigrants. Nevertheless, Mexicans are settling permanently, especially in Texas and California. Two persons in a position to be unusually well informed upon the subject, one of them a general official of a railway carrying immigrants to the frontier, estimated that 50 per cent of those who visited the United States finally made their home there. Upon the Mexican Central Railway, which moves more immigrants than any other single road in Mexico, the official estimate of third-class passengers (laborers) crossing the frontier northward during the twelve months ended with August, 1907, was 50,000, and the return traffic during the same period was estimated to be 37,000. However, the proportion of those passing through El Paso who return is larger than of those crossing the lower Rio Grande, because so much of the former labor is employed on railways and in mines in the desert, where there is little temptation to make a permanent home. Immigrants through El Paso are seldom accompanied by their families, while many women and children cross at Laredo, especially to pick cotton. A prominent Mexican merchant in San Antonio, Tex., said: "Mexicans who have come to the United States seldom go back to stay, because conditions are better here, and because they are not kept down so much in this country." The superintendent of public instruction of Arizona stated that in the southern counties of that Territory nearly one-half the children enrolled in public schools have foreign-born parents, mostly Mexicans, but that very few of these children were born in Mexico. In California Mexican laborers were said to be accompanied by their families, and to be settled in little colonies near a number of the larger towns; but in Colorado there was no evidence that the immigrant Mexicans have come to remain. An evidence of increasing settlement in Texas is the large number of excursionists that return to Mexico each year to attend the religious festivals at Aguas Calientes and at the City of Mexico. These people, though Mexican born, buy return tickets to Texas.

The transition in Texas from an immigration of temporary laborers to one of settlers was thus described by a railroad official who had

observed it from the outset: "Ten years ago our Mexican immigrants were chiefly men. It was rare to see a woman among those who came through here from any distance down the line. About 1900, men who had been in the United States and returned to Mexico began to bring back their families with them. Usually they were also accompanied by a number of single men, or married men without their families, who had never before been in this country. Most of the men who had families with them did not go back the following season, but the men without their families did, and some of them in turn came back the next year with their families to remain permanently. So the process goes on, with, I believe, a larger proportion of women and children among the immigrants each year, and a larger proportion remaining in this country."

The Bishop of Texas diocese (Roman Catholic) stated that many thousand immigrants from Old Mexico were settling in his parishes, and that the increase of Mexican population was general throughout the southern part of the State.

Probably a conservative estimate of the proportion of the immigrants remaining permanently in the United States would be from one-fourth to one-third. The number is probably in the neighborhood of 20,000 per annum. In the lack of more definite data than is possessed at present the number can only be estimated—and the estimate has possibly a wide margin of error—because this annual increment to the permanent Mexican population of the country settles over such a wide area that its presence is hardly perceptible except in large city colonies.

Americans of Mexican descent take an active part in local politics and have their bosses and machines like English-speaking Americans. In New Mexico they were said to make very fair citizens, though more apt to be loyal to personal leaders than to political parties. The immigrants, even if they make their home in this country, seldom become naturalized. The records at San Antonio show that before the Federal naturalization law went into operation the number of persons with German names who became citizens was eight or nine times the number of those bearing Spanish names, though the Mexican population of Bexar County is over one-third the total foreign-born residents. In the entire State in 1900 the Mexican population was 39.6 per cent of the total foreign-born population, and doubtless has been increasing relatively since that year. Those Mexicans who become naturalized have usually resided in the United States for many years, sometimes for the greater part of their lives. It is not unusual for several persons of the same family name to acquire citizenship at the same time, probably to facilitate the settling of an estate or for some other legal purpose.

Spanish-speaking citizens consider themselves socially superior to the immigrants, and rather pride themselves on being Americans.

There is for this reason less social intermingling than the identity of language, religion, and customs might lead one to expect. The "Americanization" of the Spanish-speaking population of the Southwest is proceeding much more rapidly at present than heretofore, partly because these people are themselves migrating temporarily or permanently to English-speaking sections of the country, and partly because of the large immigration from other parts of the Union. The history of Las Vegas, N. Mex., indicates how this change affects civic ideals. The original Mexican town in the river valley antedates the advent of the American. When the railway was built an American town grew up in its vicinity, possibly a mile from the center of the older village. Later the two places were incorporated as a single city. But this arrangement was unpopular with the Mexicans, used to more primitive political arrangements and averse to taxation, and through their influence the town was disincorporated. The American town then went ahead, incorporated separately, constructed public works, and built up an excellent system of public schools, including a high school, housed in fine buildings. After several years the Mexican town finally incorporated separately, and now is following the example of its neighbor in the matter of improvements and school facilities. So this New Mexican and largely Spanish-speaking community is now taxing itself more heavily than many a town in the East for public education, and has issued bonds and erected creditable schoolhouses. This case is fairly representative of what is taking place wherever the railway and American example are bringing the influence of other sections of the country to bear upon the native population. An educational officer, who himself spoke Spanish fluently, whose duties made him familiar with conditions in the southern part of Colorado, said that a marked language change had occurred within ten years, so that while formerly it was comparatively rare to meet a person of Mexican race who spoke English, it was now rare to meet a young "Mexican" who was not familiar with that language.

These changes to American habits of life in the home, and to American civic ideals in the community, coupled with the gradual acquisition of English in the public schools, are all recent. The public school system of New Mexico is but fifteen years old, and railways have been in the territory less than a generation. They have as yet influenced appreciably only that part of the so-called Mexican population that has been born in the United States. At present the immigrant Mexican does not seem likely to be assimilated by our own people; that is, actual fusion of blood appears to be remote. But barring this, which may not be permanent, he may learn to understand our institutions and adopt our habits of thought and action in public affairs.